

W1 : Petroleum Geosciences – Fundamentals of Basin Exploration



Formation certifiante en Management de la chaîne de valeur de l'EP et
Ingénierie pétrolière – *Du 06 Novembre au 10 Novembre 2016*

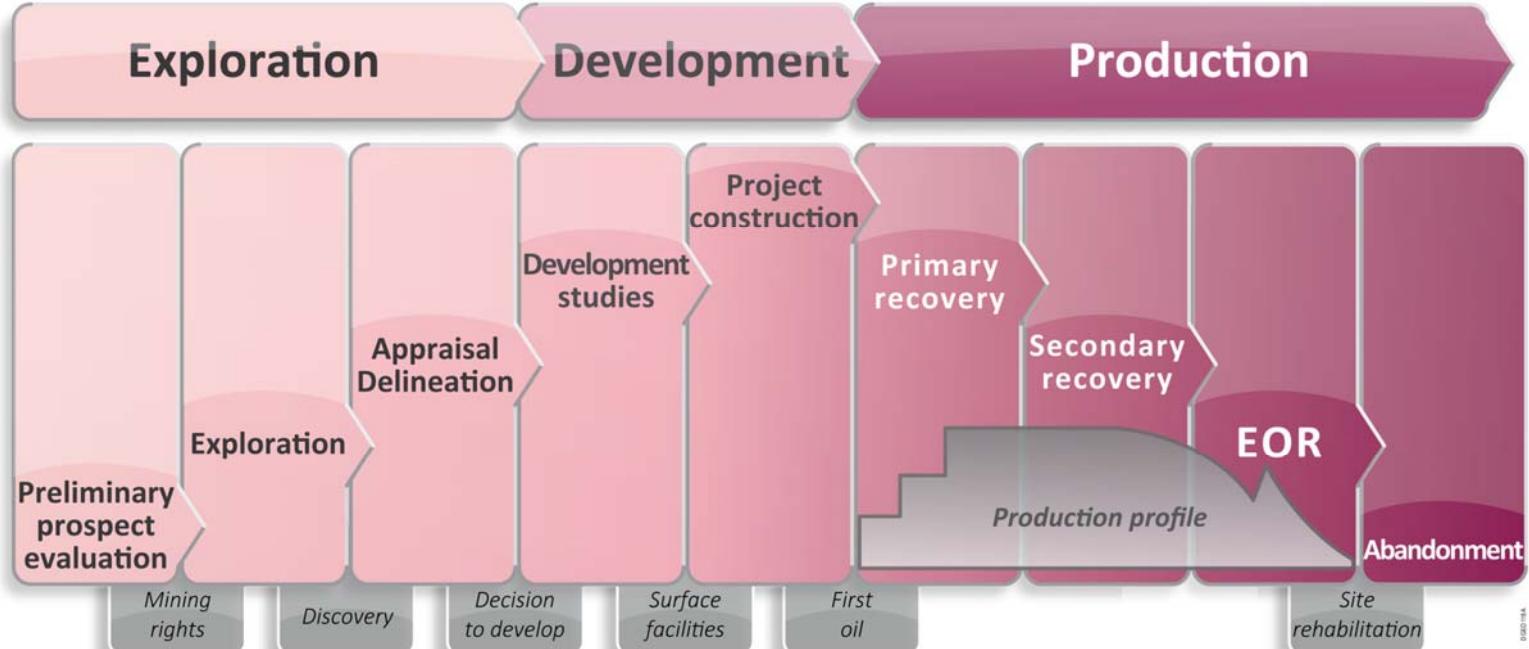


Fundamental basin exploration workshop

Arnaud Torres, Jacques Kuchly

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The E&P workflow



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Exploration-Production: stakes and challenges

1. Where are hydrocarbons?

- In reservoirs (porous or fractured)
- How did they get into reservoirs?
- Where are they coming from? (source and generation)
- Why are they accumulated in this trap?

2. How to produce them?

- Geological reservoir model (static)
- Quantification of reservoir characteristics
- Identification of heterogeneities
- Dynamic reservoir model
- Production prediction
- Appraisal well positioning

Basin analysis



- Elaboration of exploration concept → play assessment
- Identification of prospects
- Evaluation of uncertainties and risks
- Exploration well → OOIP calculation

Exploration strategy

Strategy and design for Field development

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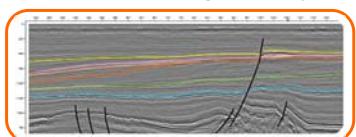
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Structural & stratigraphic analysis: data & tools

Steps 1&2

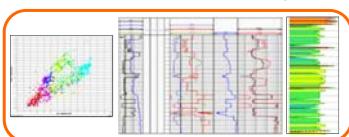
Seismic

- Structural framework
- Basin infill geometry



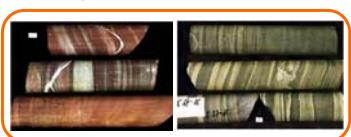
Log

- Lithology, mineralogy
- Electro-facies analysis



Core

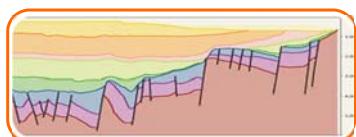
- Litho-facies identification
- Depositional environment



ANALYSIS

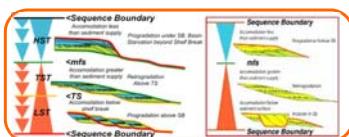
Structural analysis

- Structural style
- Faulting/folding phases



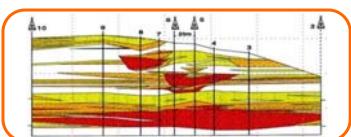
Sequence interpretation

- Identification of main surfaces (SB, MFS)



Identification of geobodies

- Facies distribution, correlations
- Depositional history



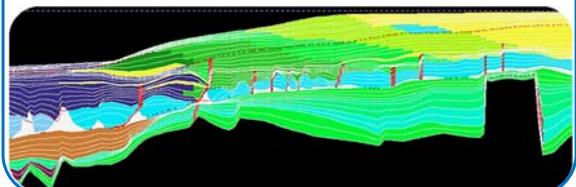
INTEGRATION

A priori geological knowledge

- Conceptual depositional model

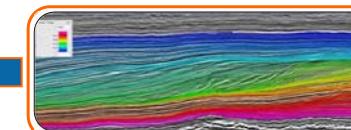


Petroleum system

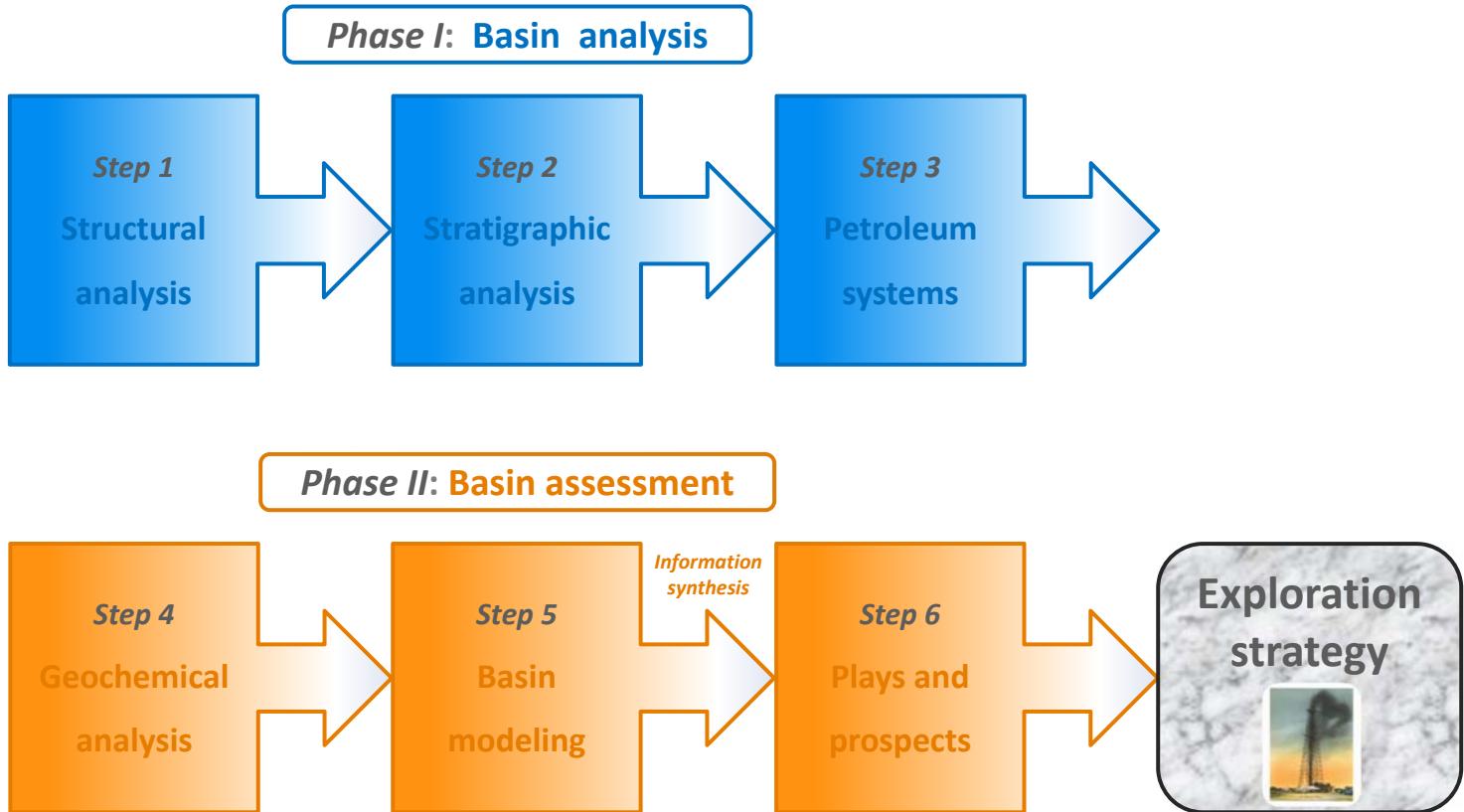


Sequence stratigraphic framework

- Main surfaces, facies distribution



Basin exploration workflow



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The four elements that make a valid prospect

- ▶ A prospect is a buried geological object which is likely to contain HC (hydrocarbon, oil and/or gas) in sufficient quantities to allow an economically viable HC production project
- ▶ Need for the «petroleum tetralogy»:
 - A **source rock** in order to generate HC
 - A **reservoir rock** with a capacity to collect HC
 - A **seal rock** above the reservoir with a full capacity to block HC moving upward
 - A **trap** in order to provide a wide-enough closed geometry



Basin analysis



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Basin analysis

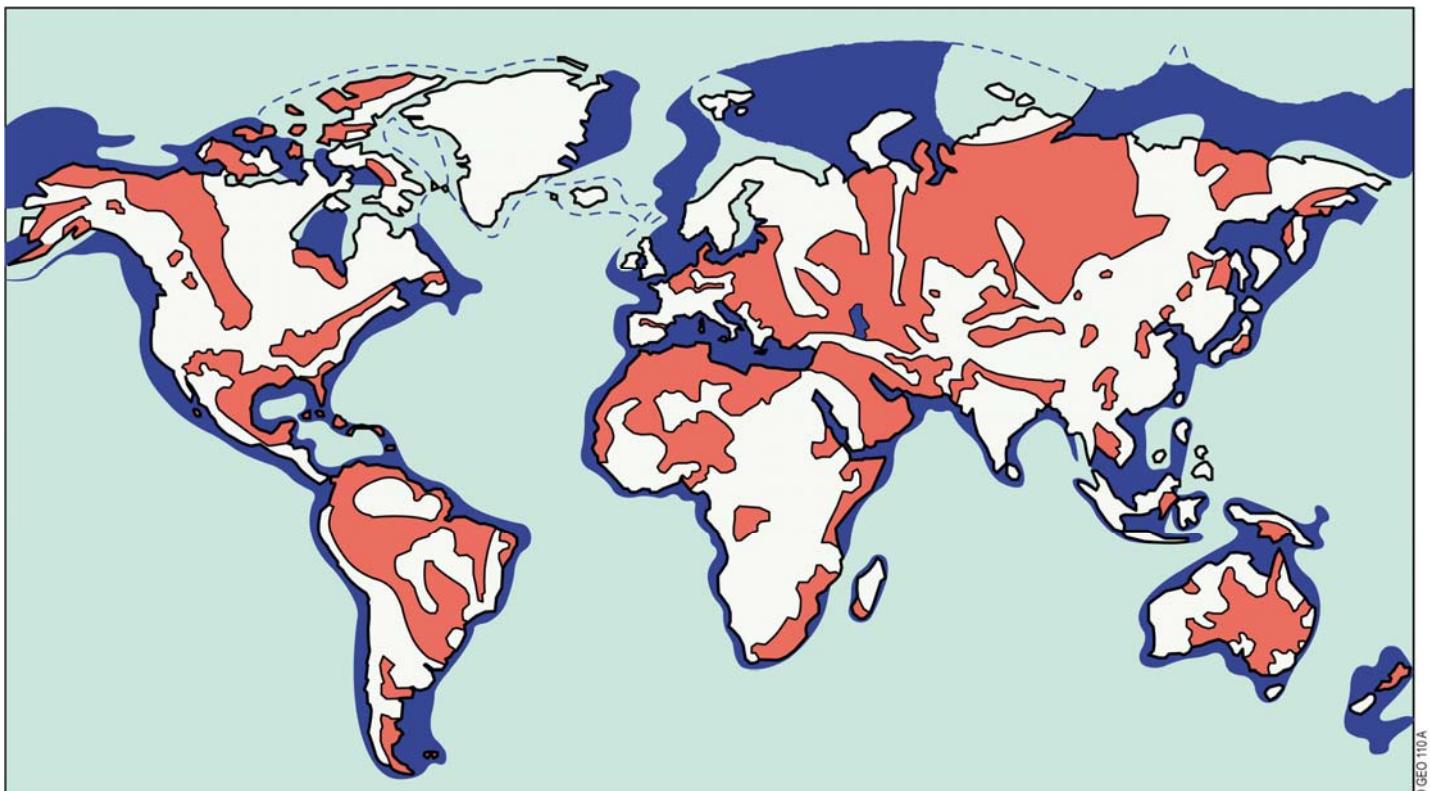
► Structural and thermal evolution during burial

- Earth structure - Geodynamics
- Extensional context
- Compressional context
- Transform/shear context
- Deformation styles

I

Map of sedimentary basins

Onshore and Offshore basins



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Structure of the Earth

Crust

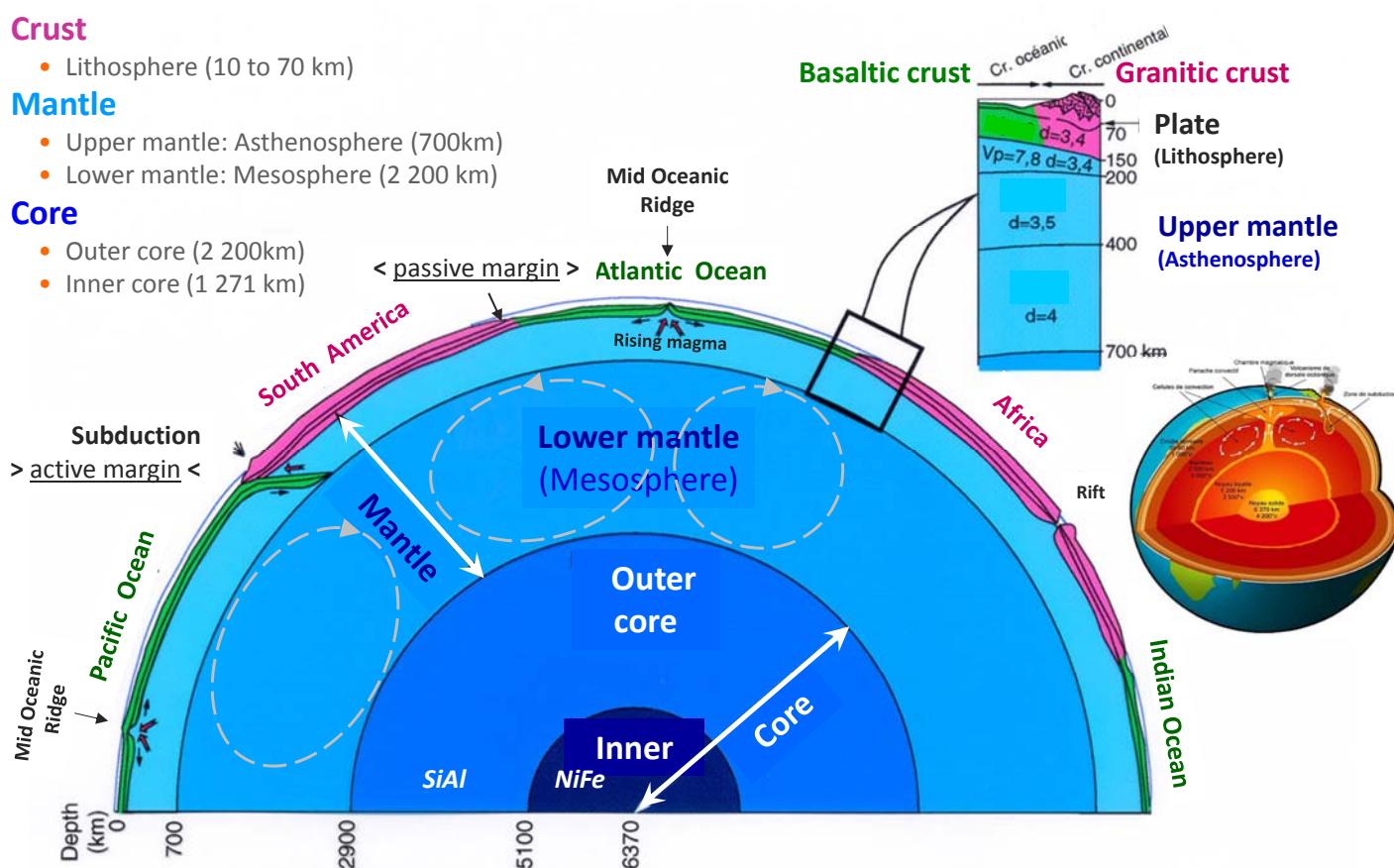
- Lithosphere (10 to 70 km)

Mantle

- Upper mantle: Asthenosphere (700km)
- Lower mantle: Mesosphere (2 200 km)

Core

- Outer core (2 200km)
- Inner core (1 271 km)

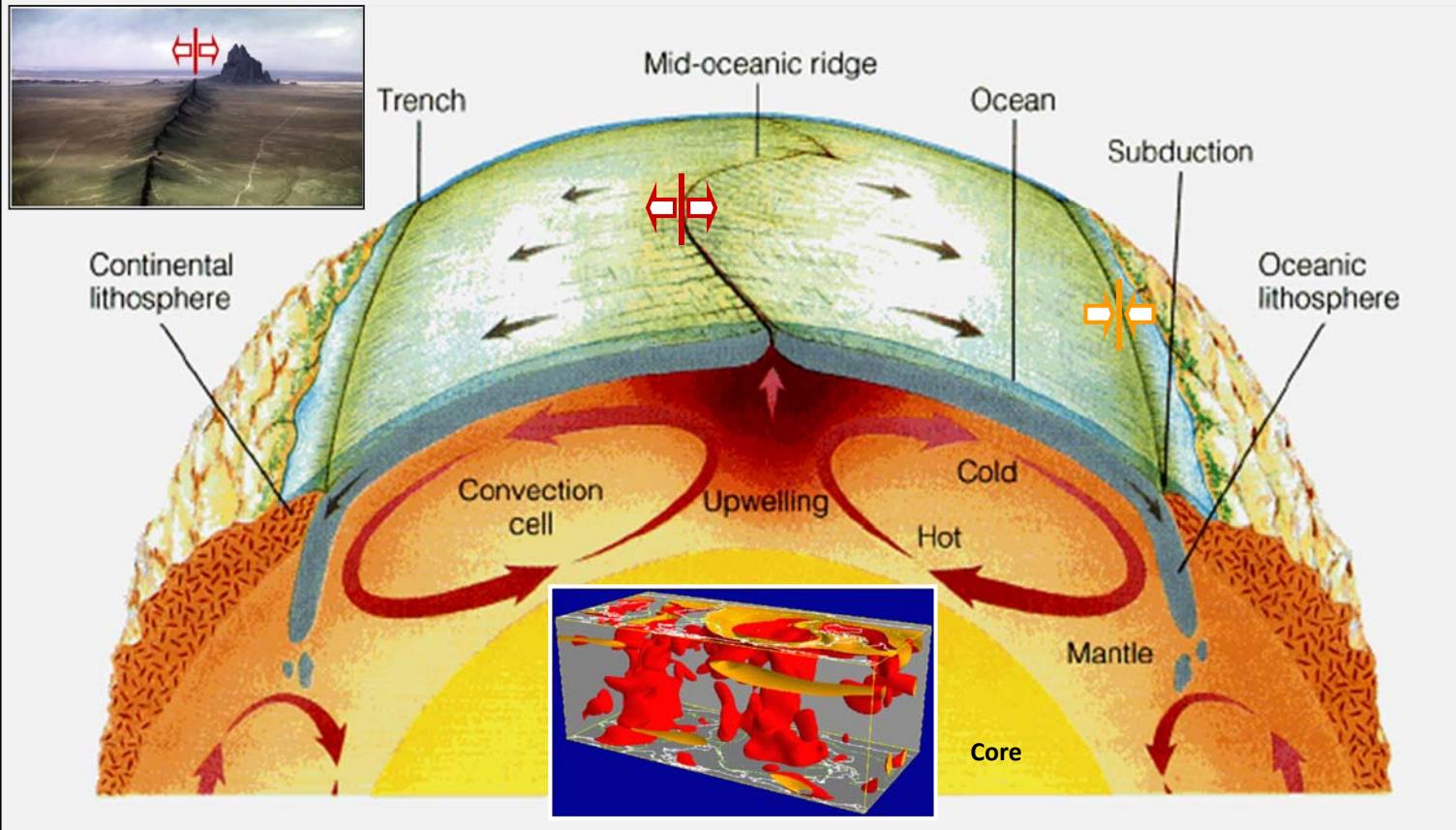


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Dynamics of the Earth: convection



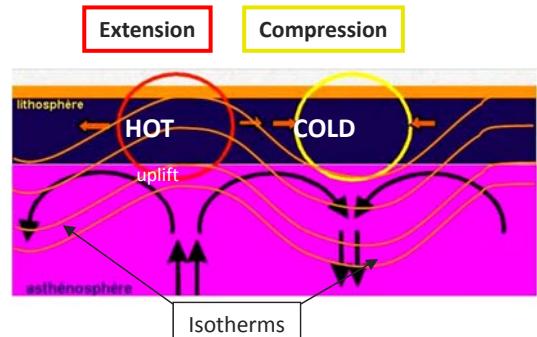
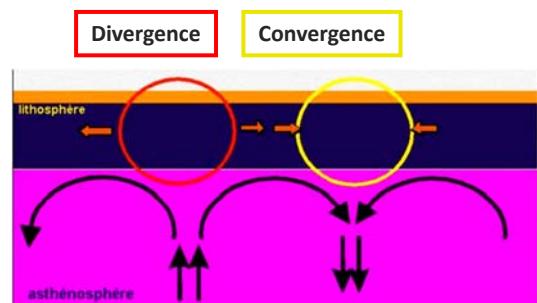
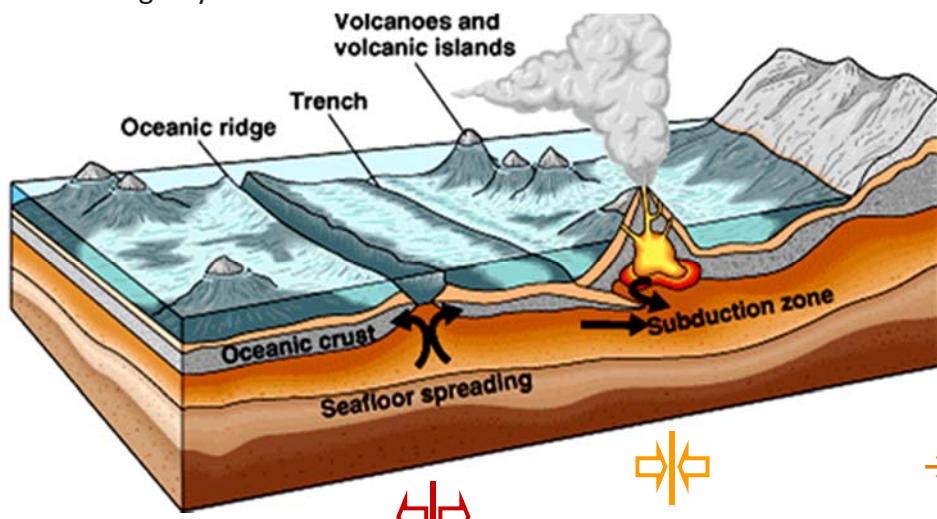
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Plate boundaries: extension & compression

- ▶ The lower limit of the lithosphere is an **isotherm**:
 - below: hotter → plastic rock deformation (**ductile**)
 - above: colder → rigid rock deformation (**brittle**)
- ▶ Upper mantle: rocks are hot
 - viscous fluids behavior
- ▶ Crust: rocks are cold
 - rigidity allows stress transmission



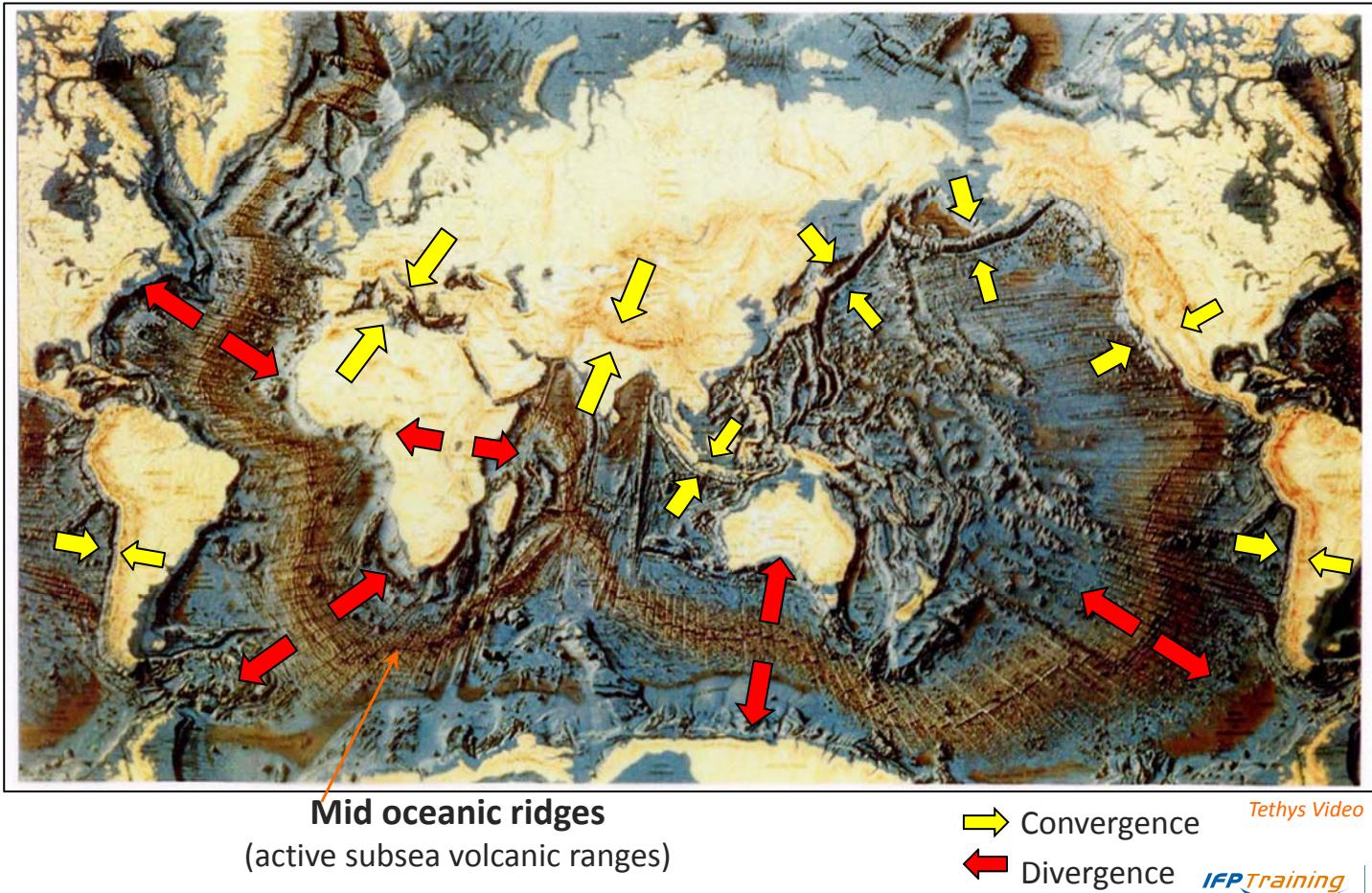
→ Driving mechanisms of plate tectonics and sedimentary basins formation

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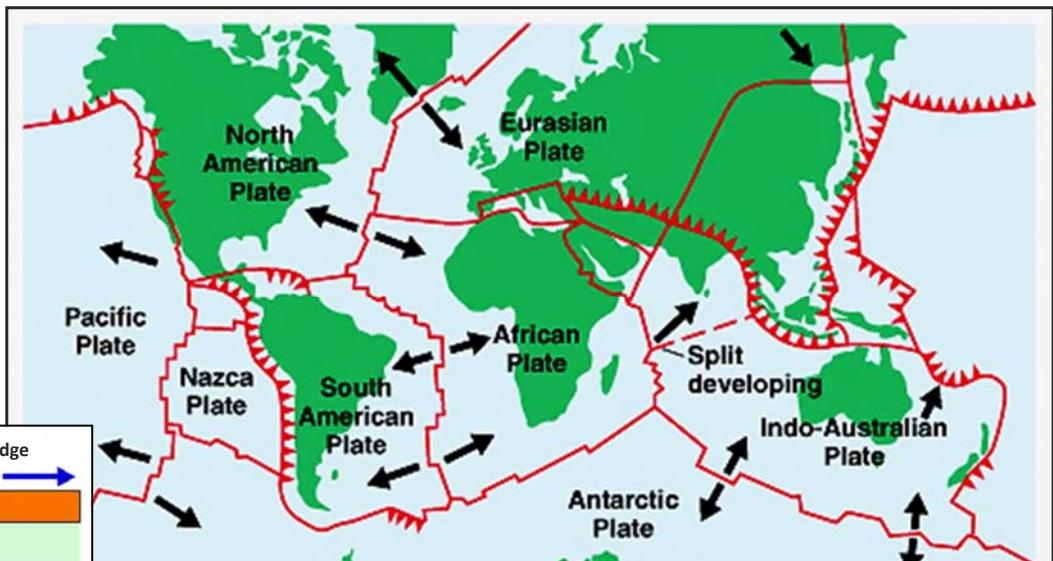
Ocean bottom topography



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Tectonic plates



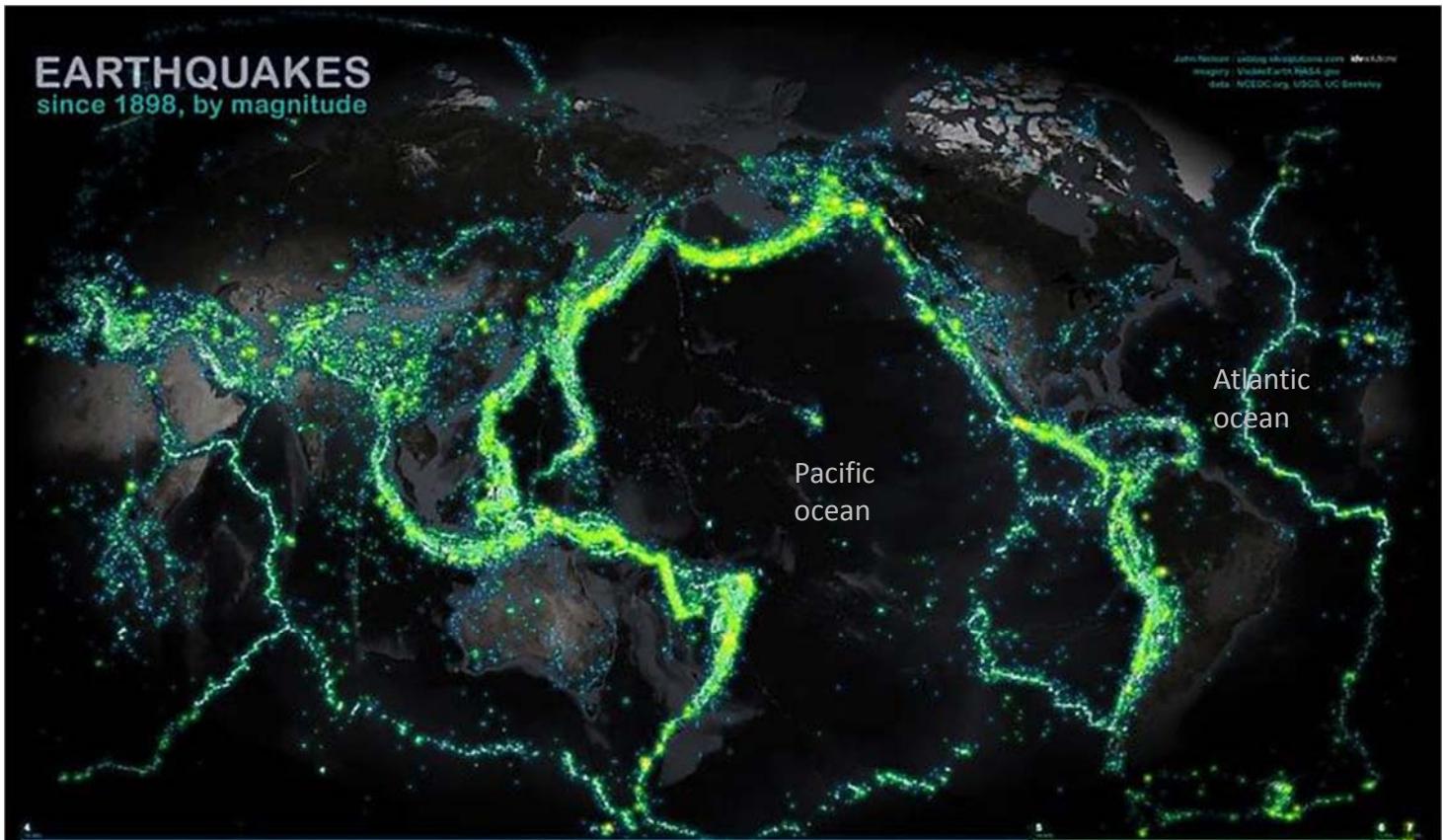
- **Lithospheric plate boundaries:**
- Divergent (extensional: mid oceanic ridges)
 - Convergent (compressional: subduction, collision)
 - Sliding/Shearing (transform, strike-slip)

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Earthquake activity



Seismicity along lithospheric plate boundaries

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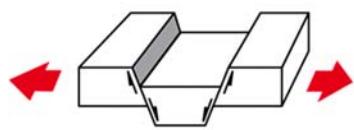
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Types of margins and related basins

► 3 types of crustal stresses

- Extensional basins
- Compressional basins
- Shear basins



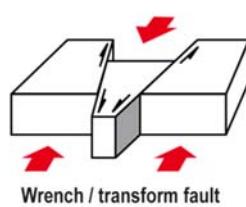
Normal fault

► 3 types of processes

- Purely thermal
- Lithospheric thickness variation
- Loading and unloading

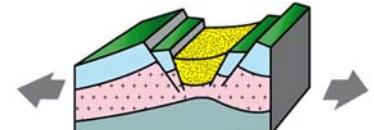


Reverse / thrust fault



Wrench / transform fault

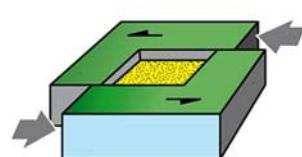
Exploration potential



Extensional basin (divergence)



Compressional basin (convergence)

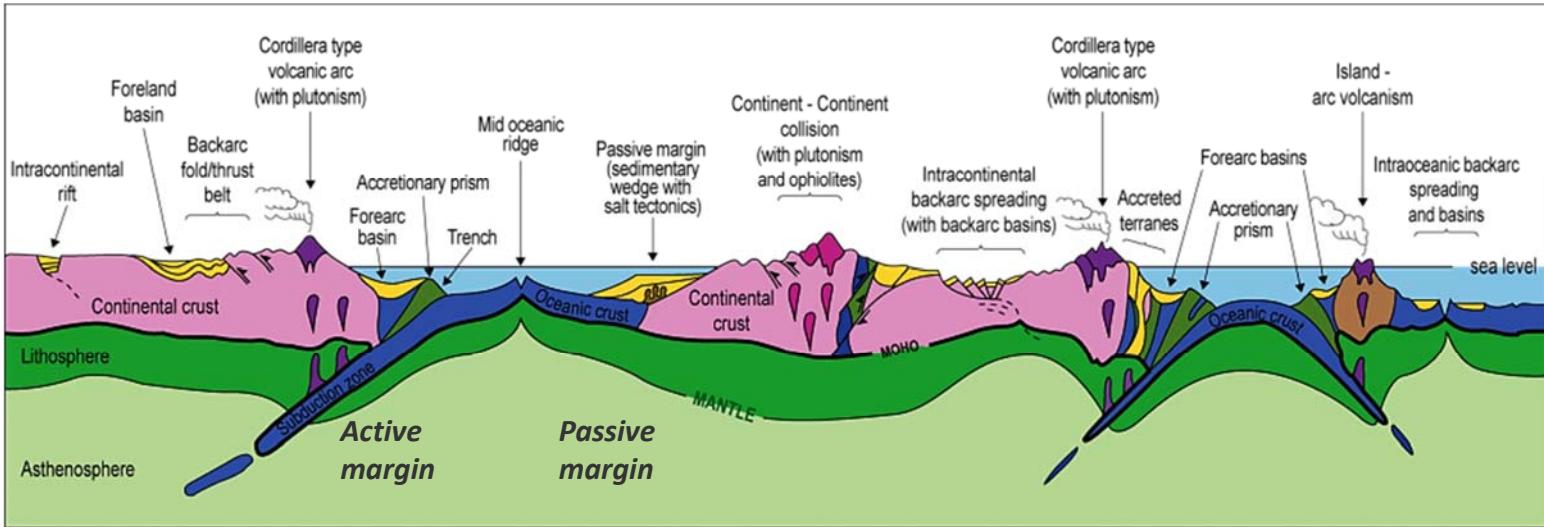


Pull-apart basin (shearing)

Types of sedimentary basins and related deformations styles

Types of margins and related basins

Sedimentary basins (in yellow)



**Sedimentary rocks cover 75% of the Earth's surface (continental crust)
but only represent 5% of the crustal volume...**

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Types of sedimentary basins



► Basins associated with plate divergence

Extensional basins

- Rift, passive margin (plate divergence, ocean)
- Intra-cratonic basin (intra-continental, intra-plate)

► Basins associated with plate convergence

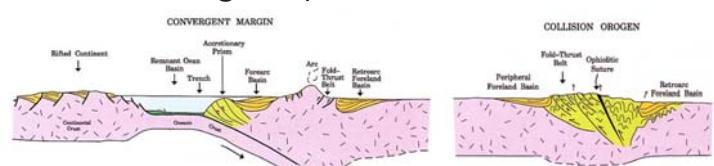
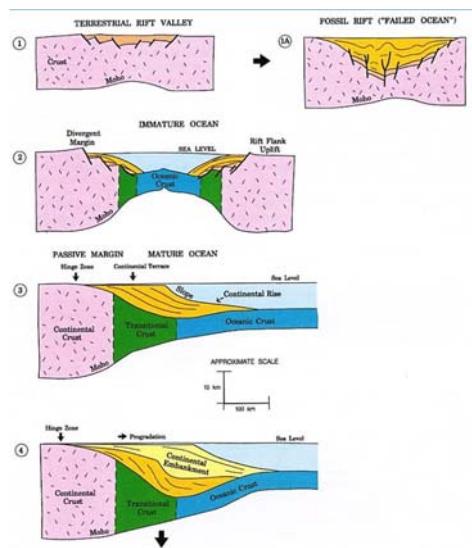
Compressional basins

- Island arc-type margin (two oceanic plates)
- Continental active margin (ocean / continent plates)
- Inter-plate collision (two continental plates)

► Basins associated with shearing (sliding movement)

Trans-tensional basins

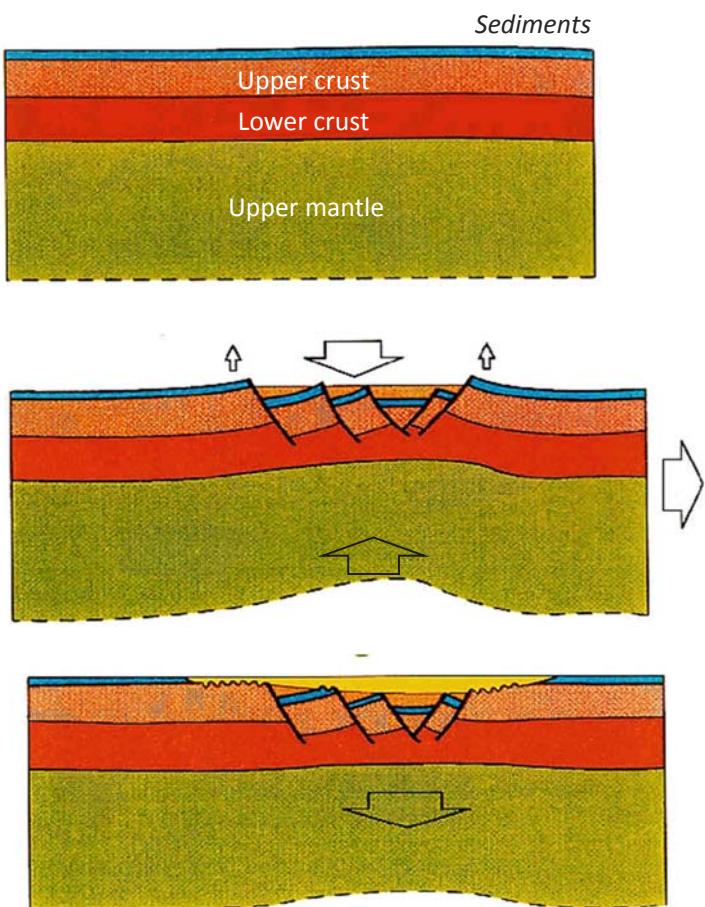
- Pull-apart basin (trans-tension: local distension in convergence)



► Structural and thermal evolution during burial

- Earth structure
- Extensional context
- Compressional context
- Transform/shear context
- Deformation styles

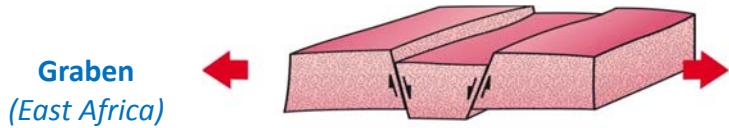
Extensional context: rift basins



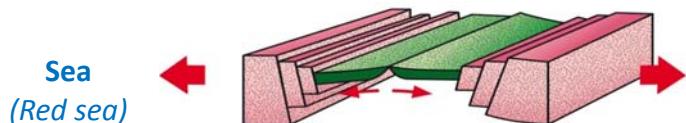
- ▶ Rifts are areas of crustal extension and thinned continental crust. Rifting areas are characterized by lithospheric stretching, high heat flow and volcanic activity caused by a thermal anomaly at depth (convection)
- ▶ Rift zones:
 - Heat flow of 90 to 110mW.m⁻²
 - High levels of earthquake activity and a dome-shaped Moho
 - Normal faults network
- ▶ Examples: Red Sea and Ethiopia / Djibouti

Basins associated with plate divergence

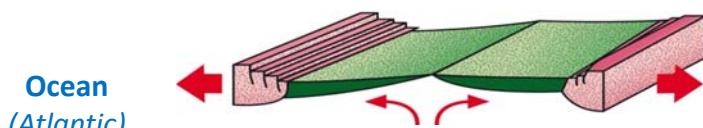
Rift evolution



Lithospheric stretching (extension: faulting)
Intracratonic rift valley
Continental environment (lakes)



Lithospheric breaking
Plate splitting
Shallow marine environment



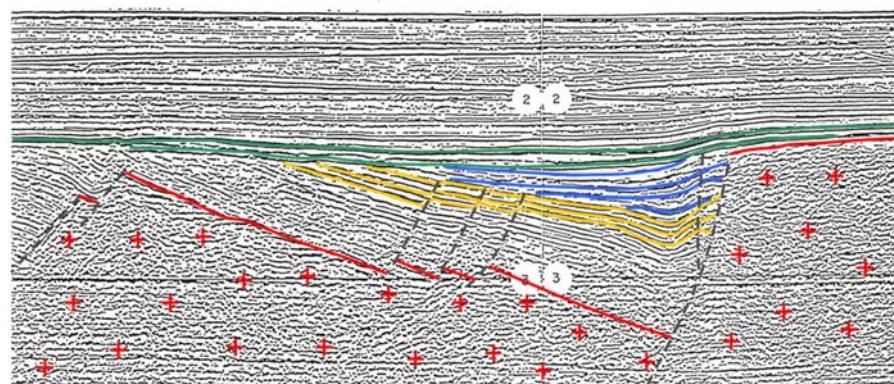
D GEO 1113 B
Continental drift (no more stretching: passive margins)
Seafloor spreading
Open marine environment

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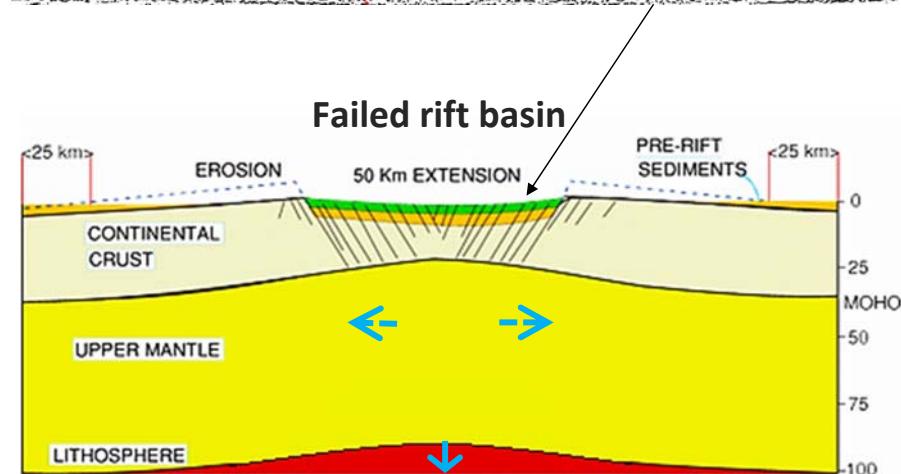
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Failed rift basins



► Aborted rifting mechanisms and lithospheric stretching due to a gradually diminishing thermal anomaly (cooling)



► Failed rift zones:

- Heat flow of 80 to 90 mW.m⁻²
- A reducing of seismic and volcanic activity
- A normal faults network covered a disconformity

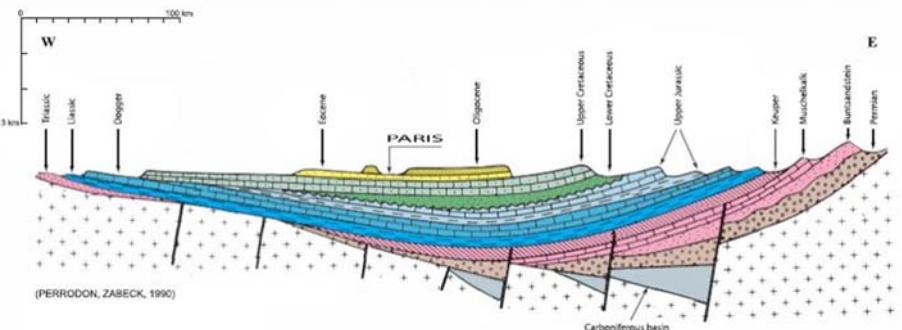
► Examples: North Sea and in Rhine-Bresse (France)

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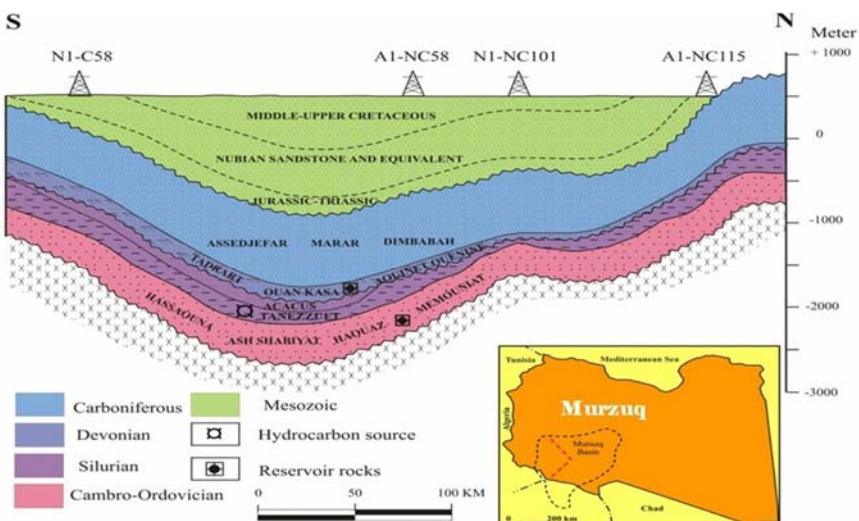
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Intra-cratonic basins



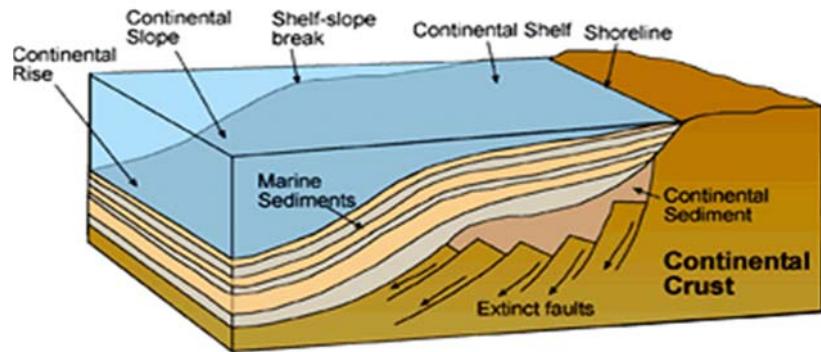
- Intra-cratonic basins are large depressions in continental crust. They have a slow and homogeneous sedimentary filling



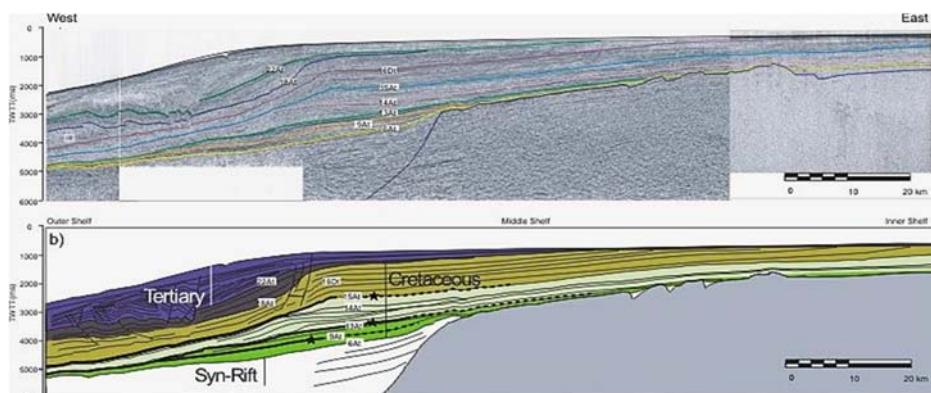
- Intra-cratonic basins:
 - Have a heat flow near-normal (60 to 80mW.m⁻²)
 - Are seismically inactive
 - Have sediment overlain on faults and syn-rift sediments

- Examples: Paris basin and Middle-East

Passive margins



- Beginning of rifting mechanisms and stop of lithospheric stretching caused by a reducing and cooling of the thermal anomaly

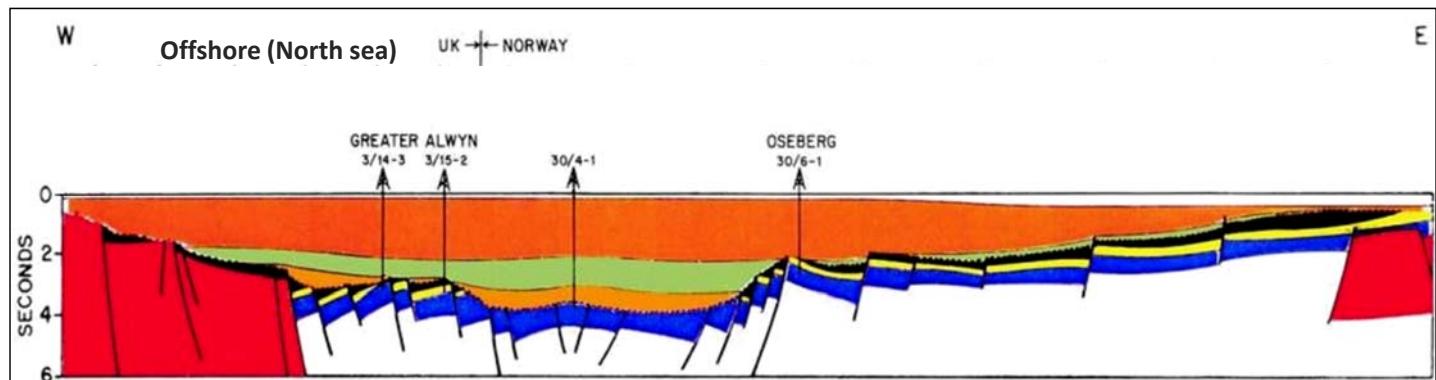
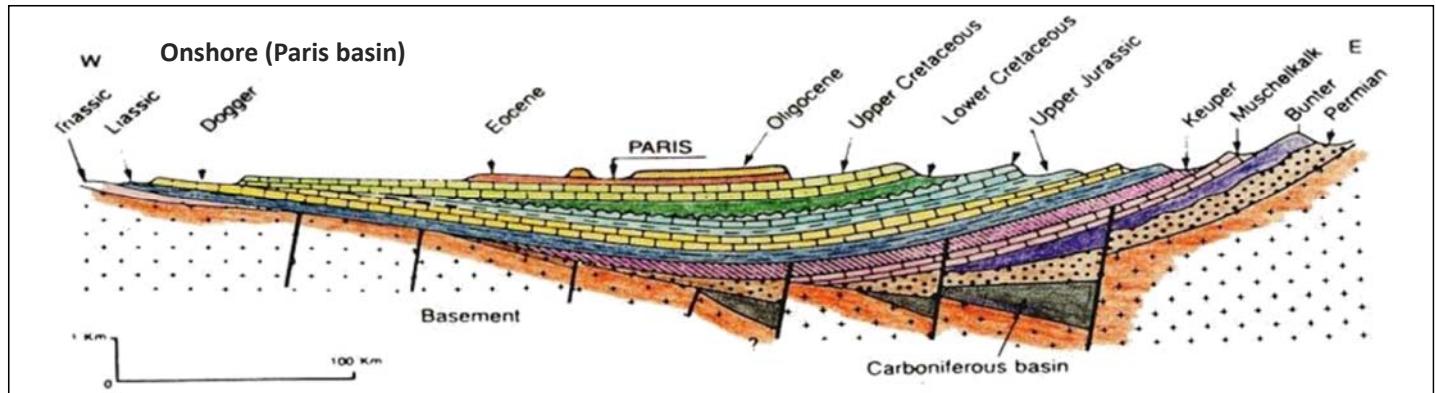


- Passive margin zones:

- Have a heat flow near-normal (60 to 80mW.m⁻²)
- Are seismically inactive
- Have sediment overlain on faults and syn-rift sediments

- Examples: West Africa and Eastern South America

Extensional basins examples

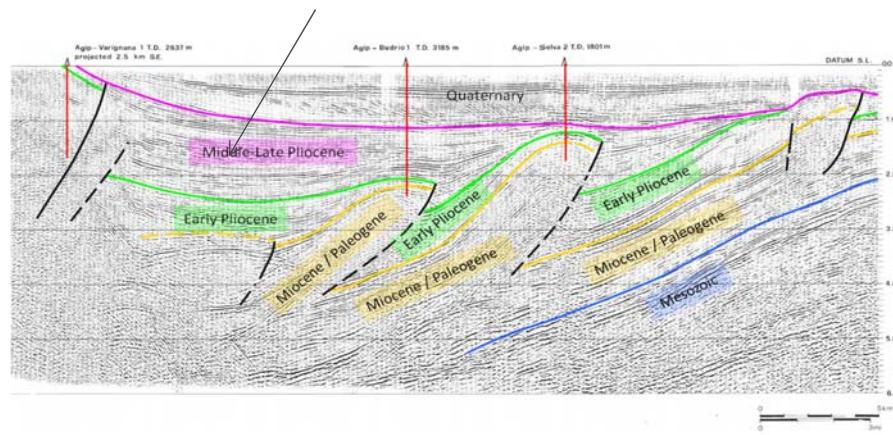


► Structural and thermal evolution during burial

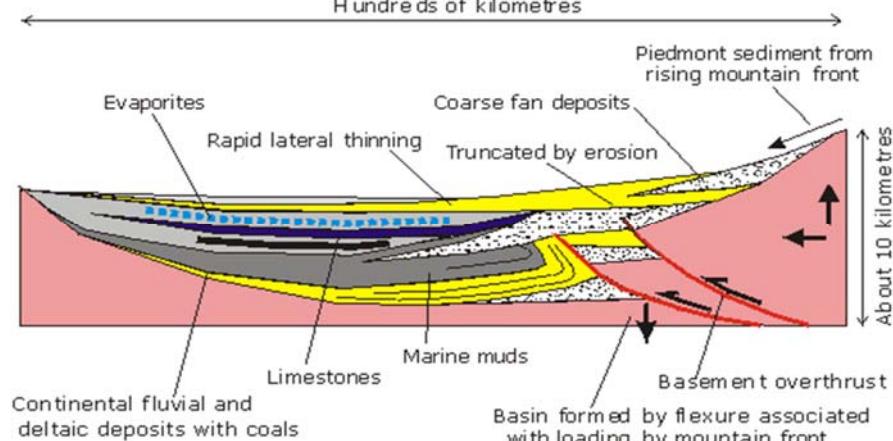
- Earth structure
- Extensional context
- **Compressional context**
- Transform/shear context
- Deformation styles

Foreland basins

Foreland basin

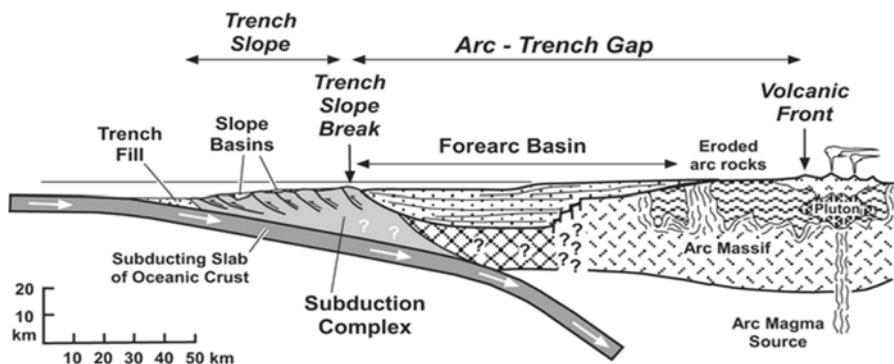


► Foreland basins result from the downward flexing of the lithosphere in response to the weight of an adjacent mountain belt (although several geodynamic processes combine to control their evolution)

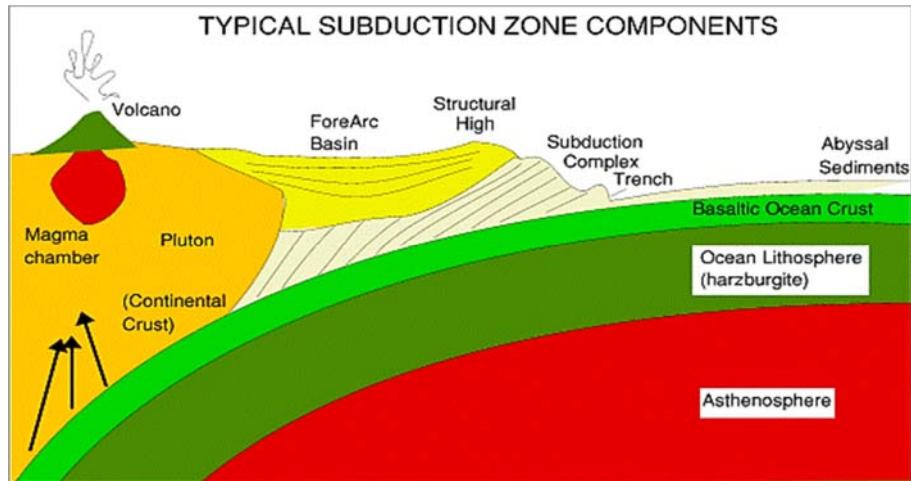


- Foreland basins:
- Have a near-normal heat flow (60 to 80mW.m^{-2})
 - Are seismically active
- Examples : Alps, Himalayan and Appalachian ranges

Forearc basins



- This basin is located between the volcanic arc and the subduction complex

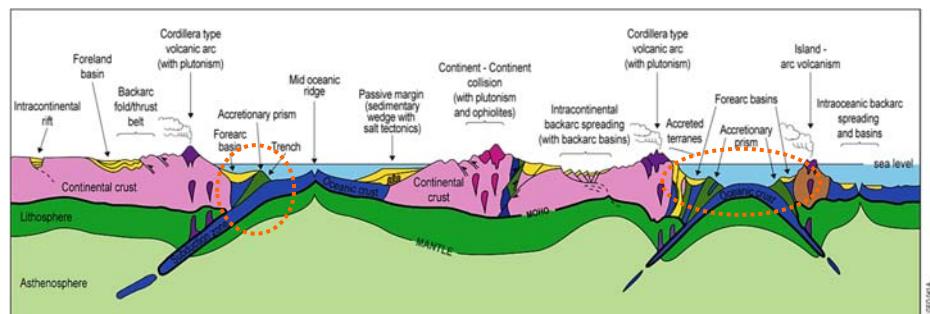
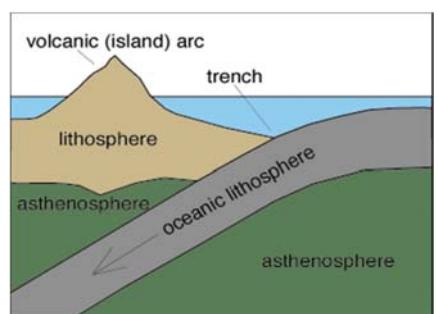


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Oceanic trench basin

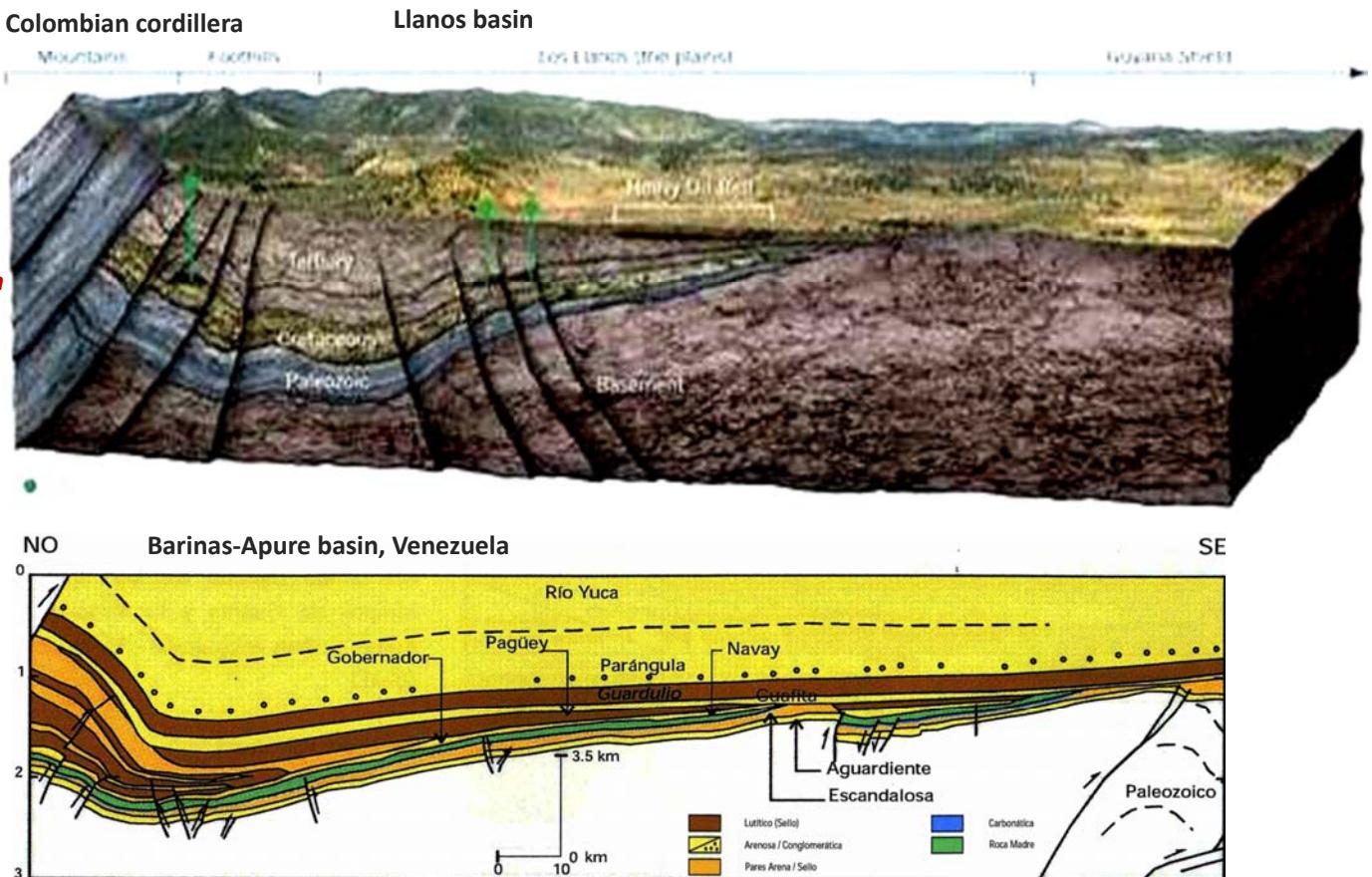


- Oceanic trenches are the deepest parts of the ocean floor where the lithosphere is subducted under another plate

- Oceanic trenches:
 - Show a high seismic activity
 - Have an associated accretionary prism

- Examples: western South America and eastern Japan

Compressional basins examples (foreland)



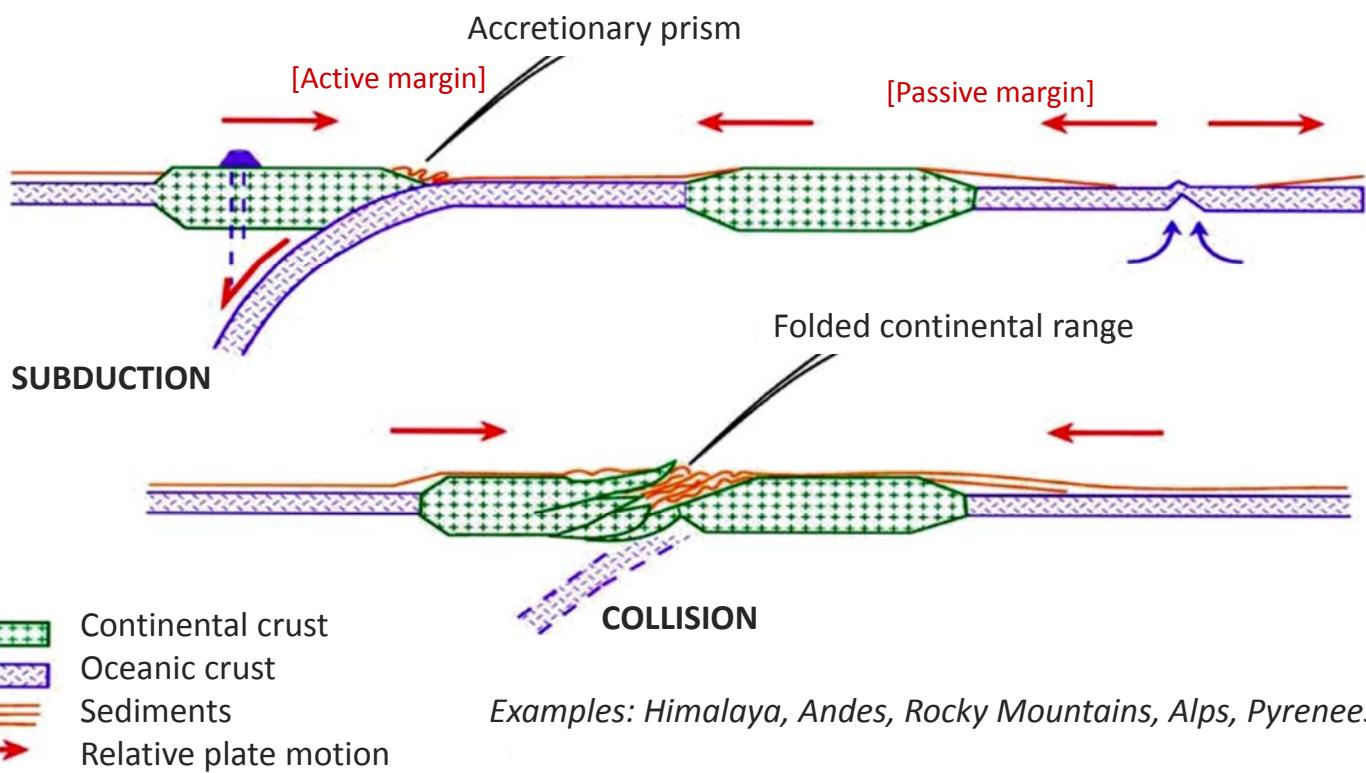
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Basins associated with plate convergence

Process of mountain range creation: orogenesis

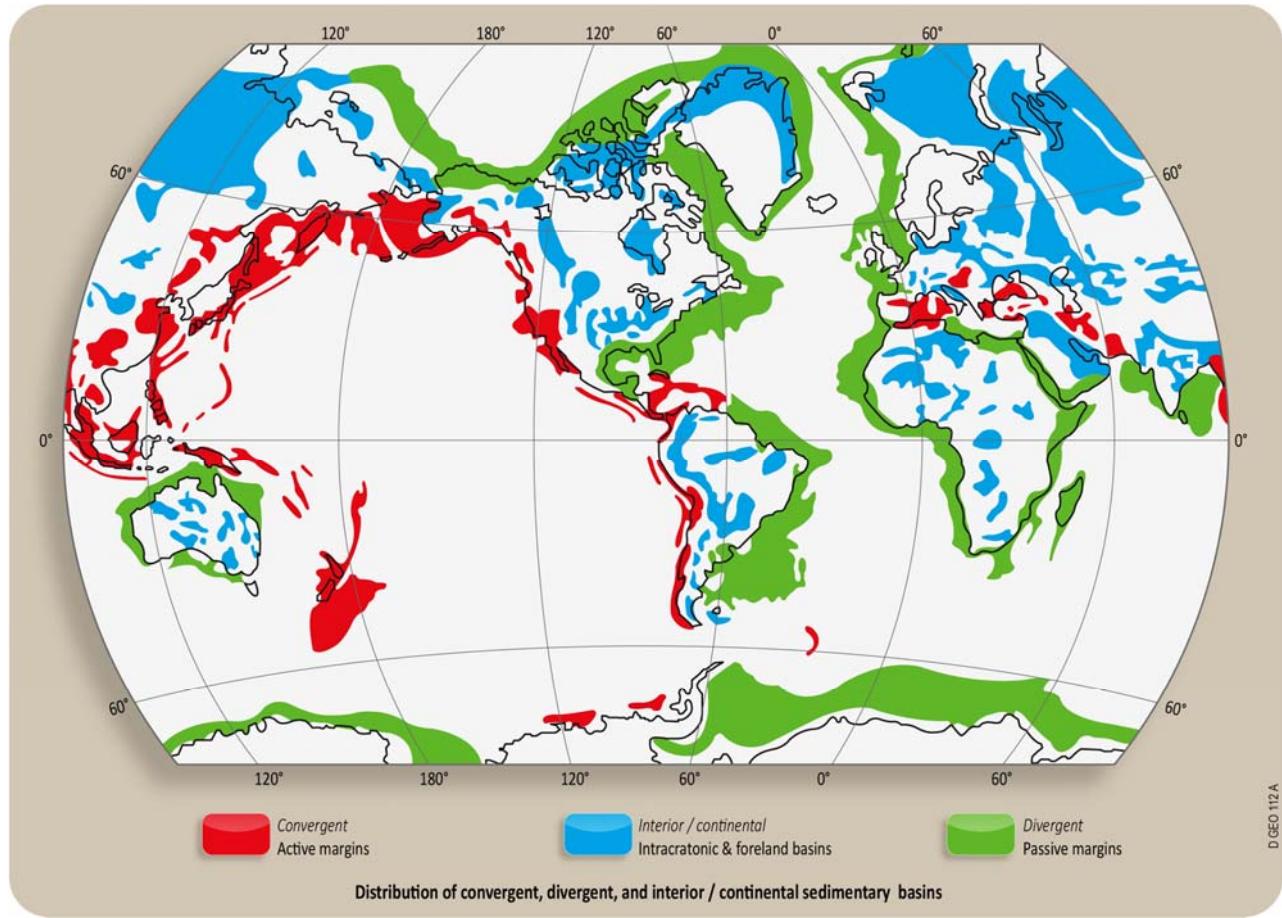


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Distribution of margins and related basins

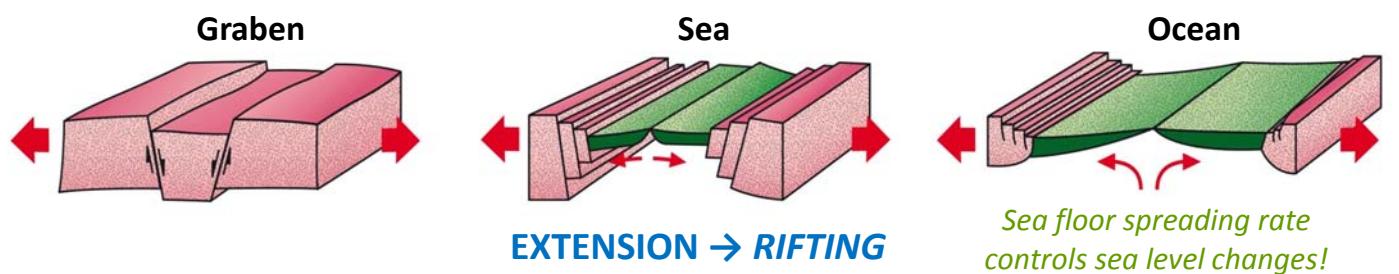


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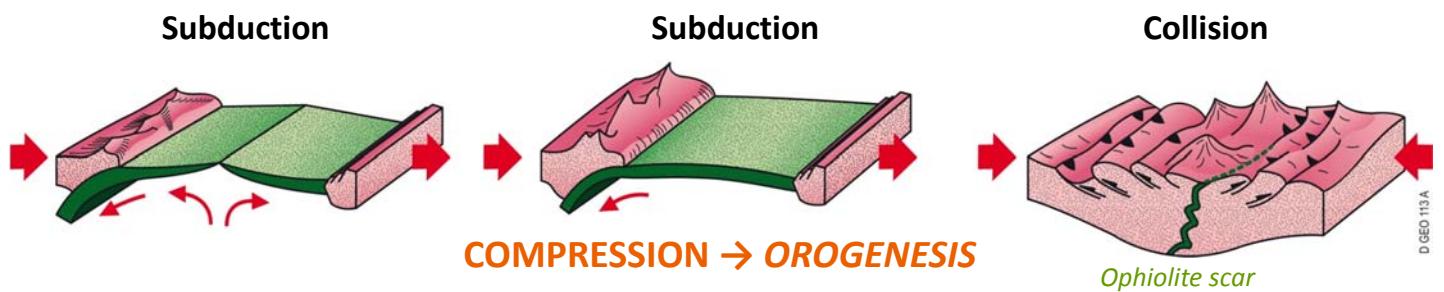
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Plate tectonics summary: Wilson's cycle



From graben to mountain: a cyclical history of the ocean floor...



Oldest oceanic crust: 240 My → older oceans were incorporated in previous collisions

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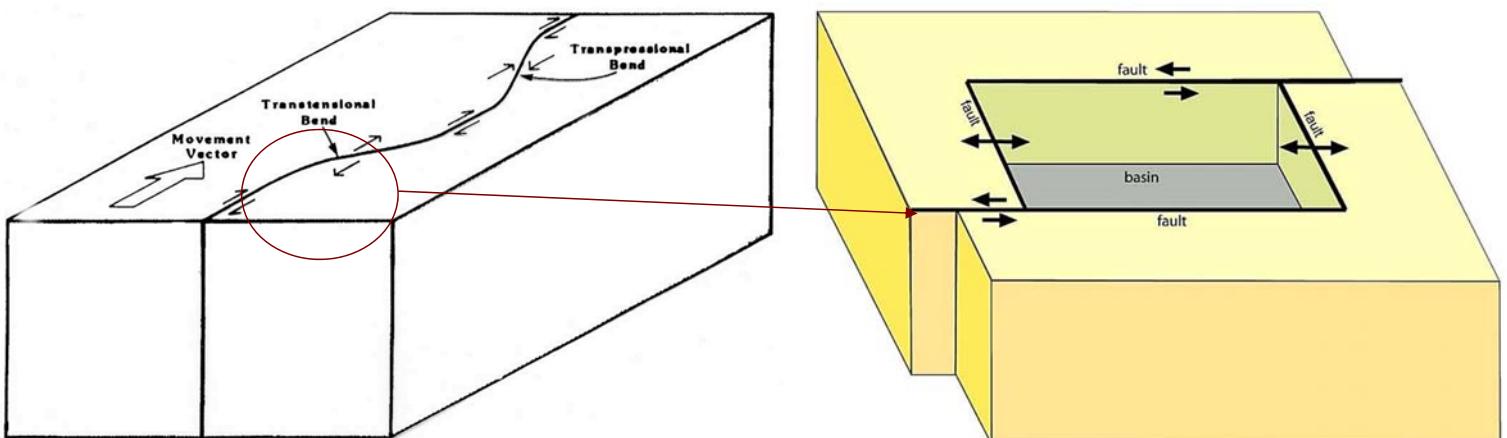
► Structural and thermal evolution during burial

- Earth structure
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Basins associated with shearing / strike-slip

Sliding/Shearing boundary between two plates (or within a plate):

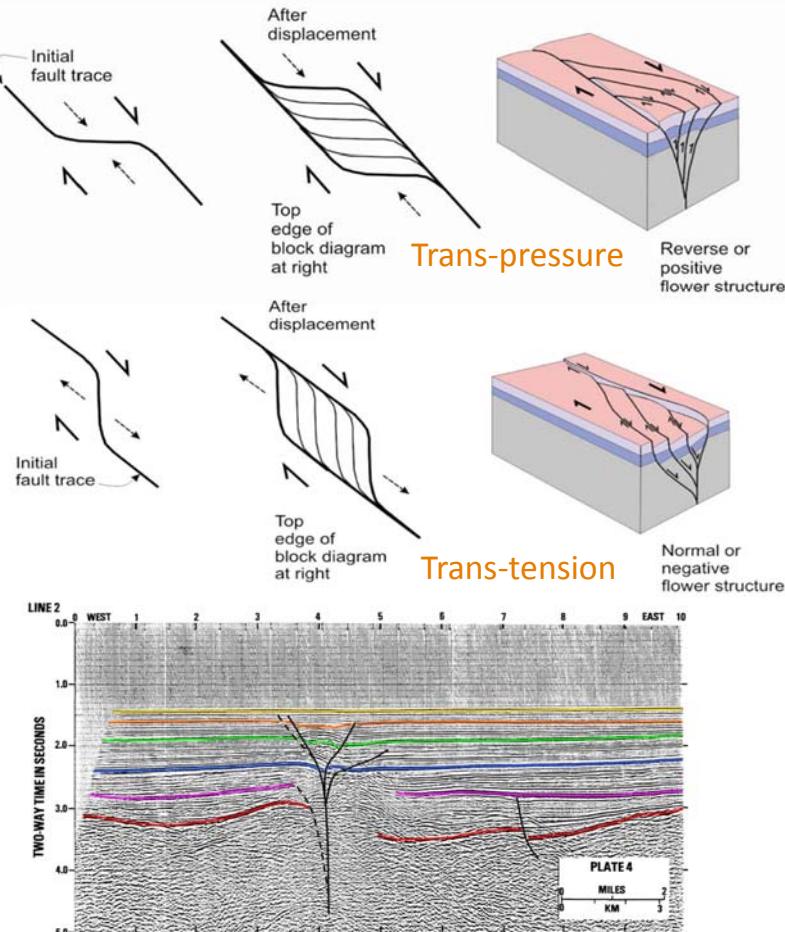
► Pull-apart basin between two strike-slip faults or along a bend (extremely fast subsidence)



Local shear deformation style depends on fault geometry:

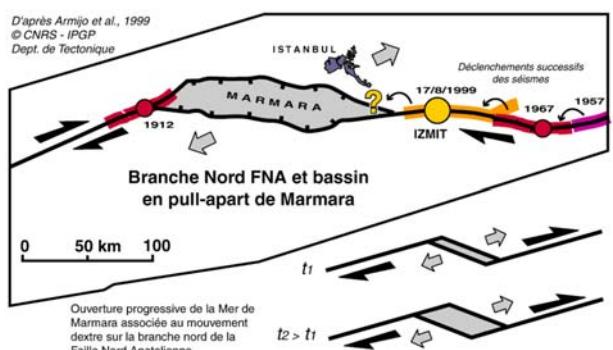
- transtensional: local extension
- transpressional: local compression

Strike-slip (pull-apart) basins



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- ▶ Strike-slip basins are due to transform fault movements
- ▶ If the blocks move away from their initial position, it is a trans-tensional movement so there are normal faults associated to the flower structure
- ▶ Symmetrically, trans-pressional movement induces reverse faults



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Main features and examples – 1/2

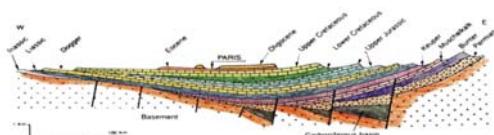


Basins in intracontinental areas:

▶ Intra-cratonic basins (large depressions in continental crust)

- weak subsidence
- light structural deformation
- slow, homogeneous sedimentary filling

Examples : Middle-East, Sahara (Algeria, Libya), Paris basin, Sverdrup basin (Canada).



▶ Rift-type basins (intracontinental)

- swelling, then collapsing of continental crust
- strong subsidence in the central area (plate splitting)
- progressive but fast sedimentary filling

Examples : Viking Graben (North Sea), Suez Gulf.



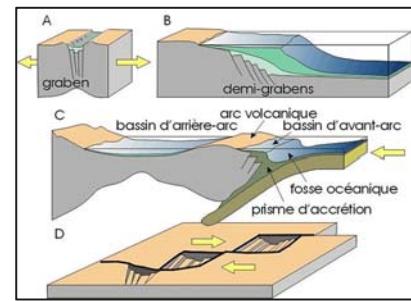
Main features and examples – 2/2



Basins on plate boundaries:

► Passive margins basins (continental)

- continent-ocean transition zone
- symmetrical basins
- Two major phases of evolution: rift and post-rift
 - rift : vertical displacement, normal faults, various sedimentation modes
 - post-rift : generalized subsidence, very important sedimentation rate



Examples : Gulf of Guiney (Zaire river delta [Gabon, Congo, Angola], Niger river delta [Nigeria, Cameroon]), Brazil (Sergipe, Alagoas, Campos), Gulf of Mexico.

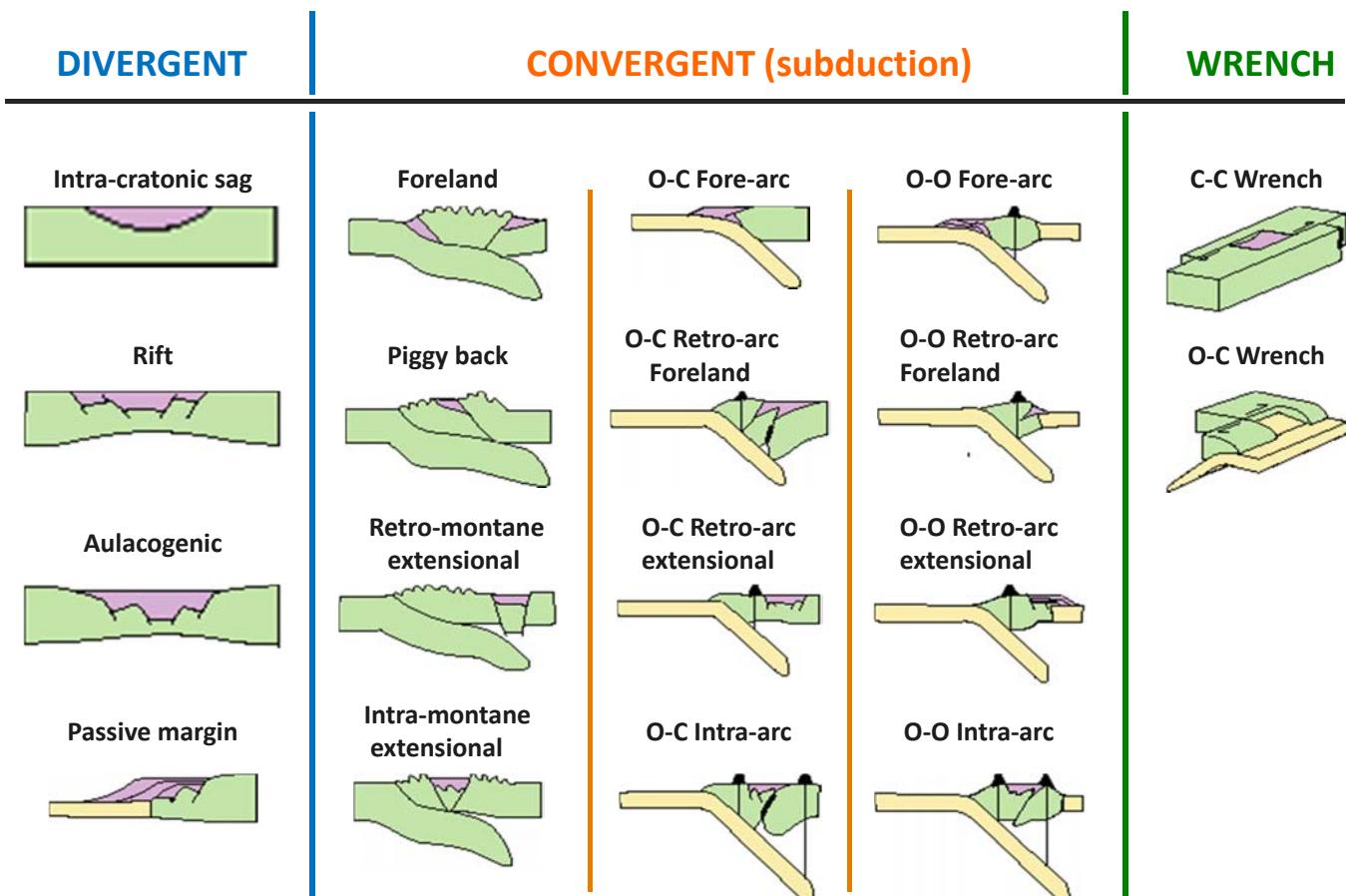
► Active margins basins (subduction zones)

- located on plate collision zones
- asymmetrical basins
- particularly unstable and often mobile zones (high seismicity)
- varied structural complexity

Examples : California, Western South-America, Aquitaine, Indonesia.



Classification of sedimentary basins



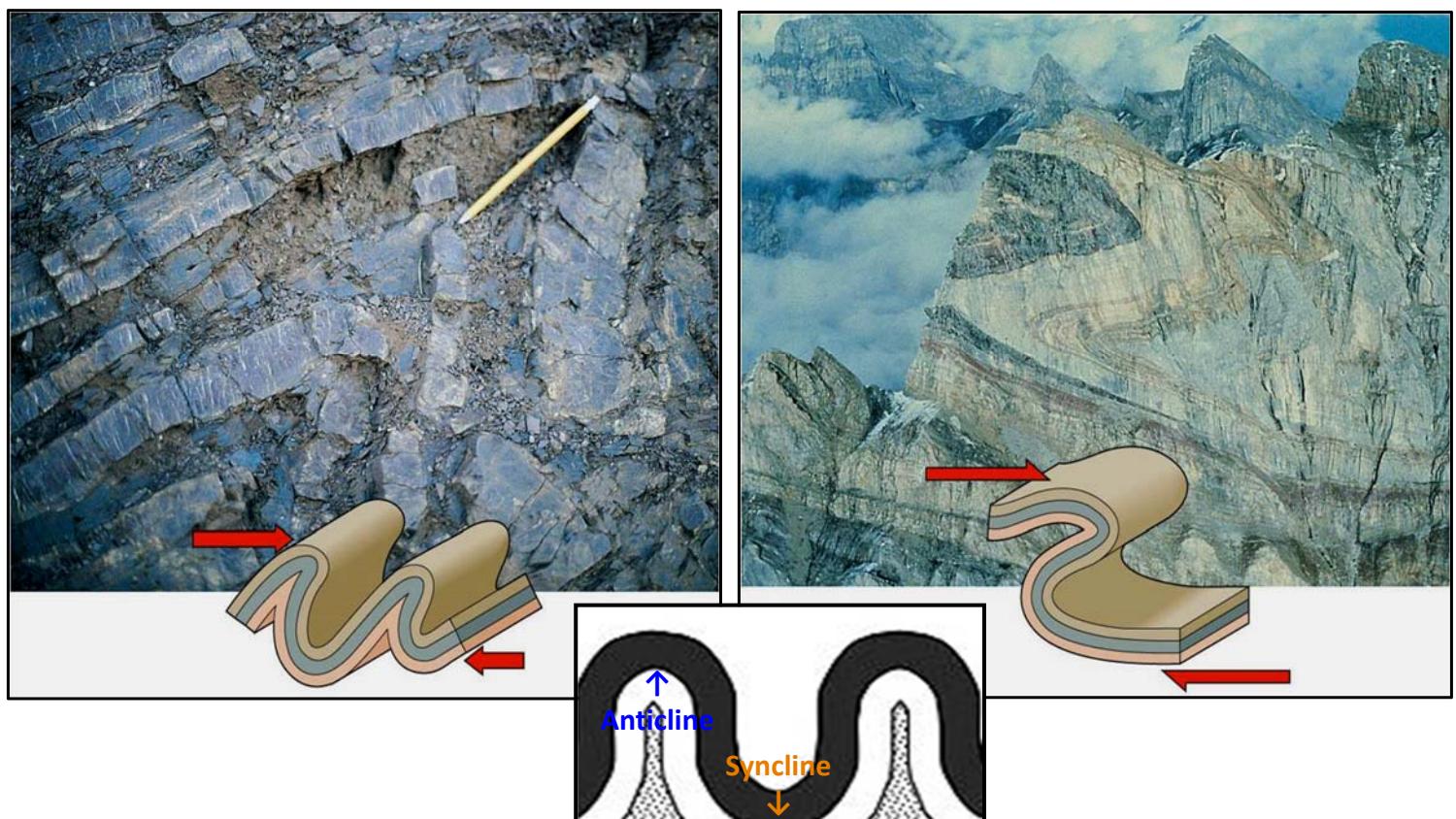
Tectonic regimes and related types of sedimentary basins

► Structural and thermal evolution during burial

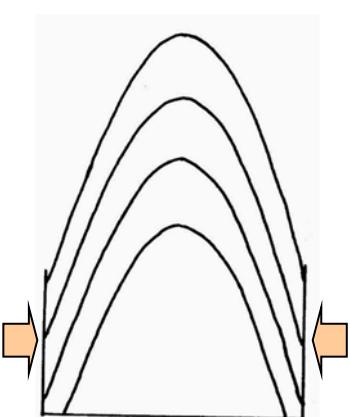
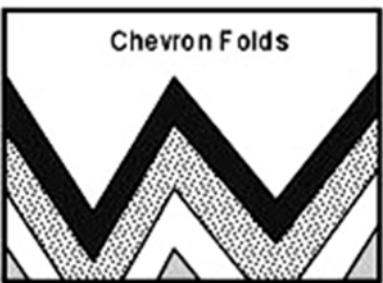
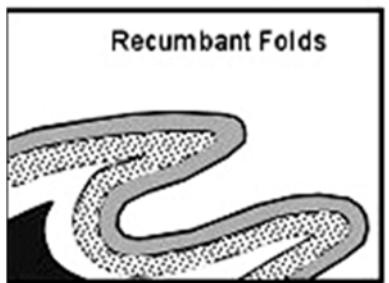
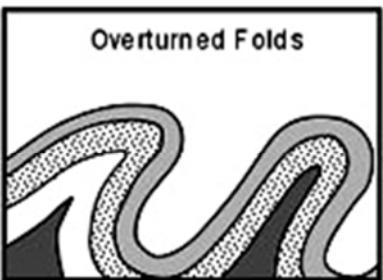
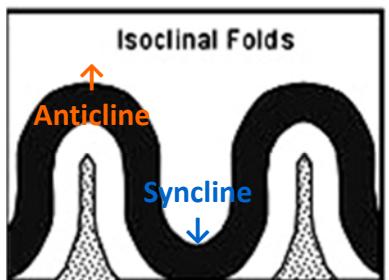
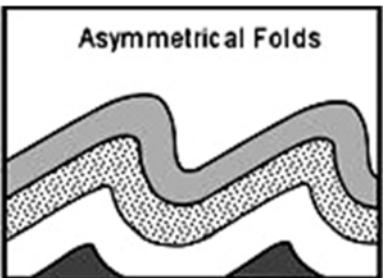
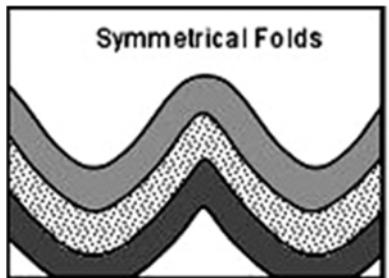
- Earth structure
- Extensional context
- Compressional context
- Transform/shear context
- Deformation styles (ductile vs brittle)

Folds: ductile deformation

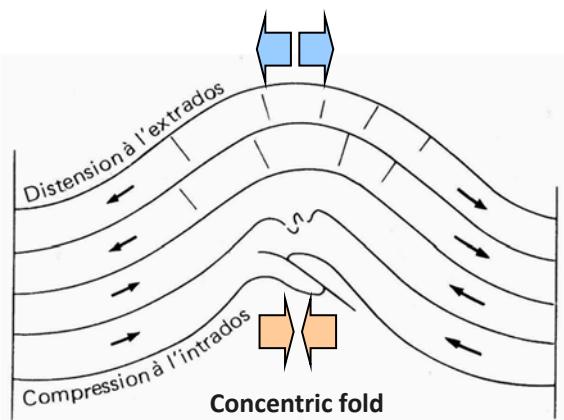
Scale: from mm to km...



Types of folds



Similar fold



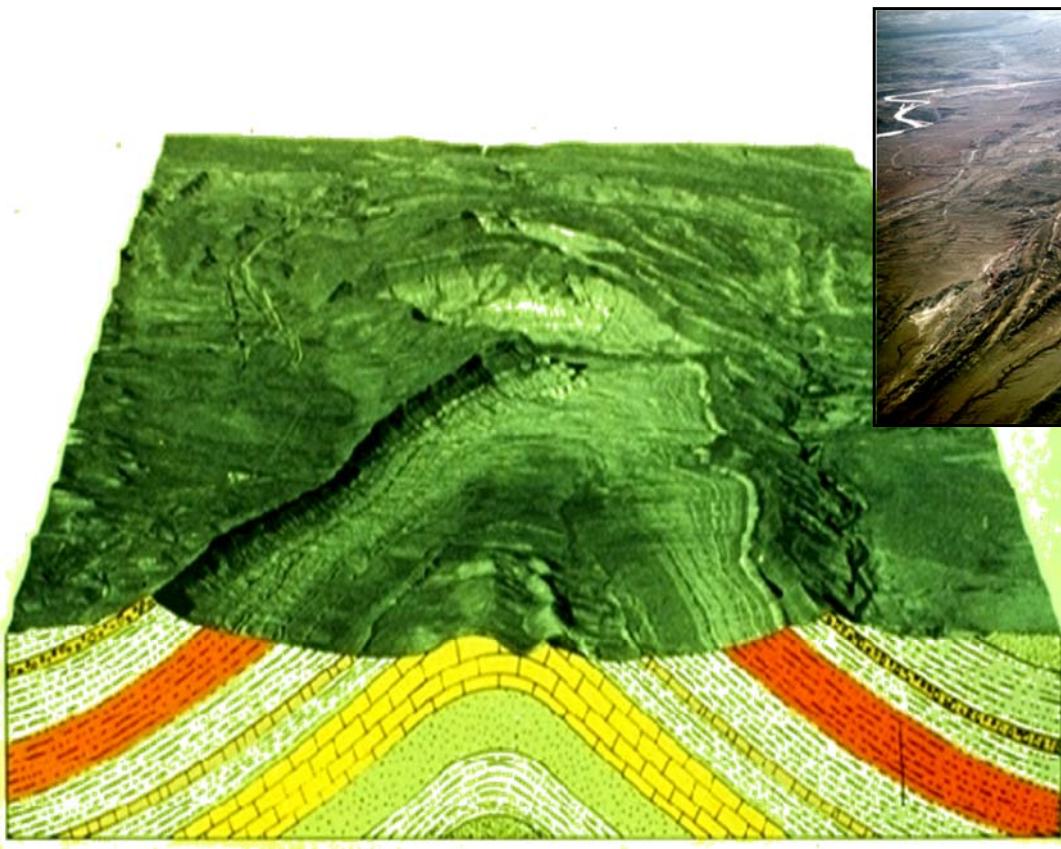
Concentric fold

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Eroded folds



Anticline



Anticline ↑ and syncline ↓

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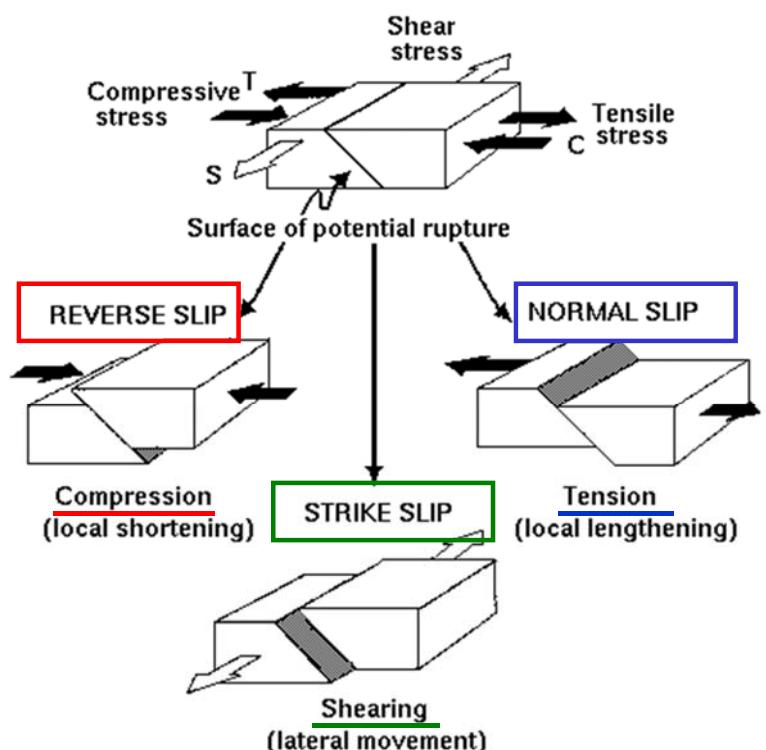
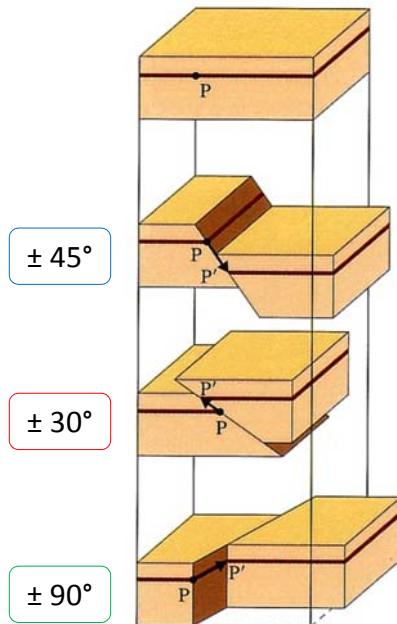
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Faults: brittle deformation

► 3 types of faults

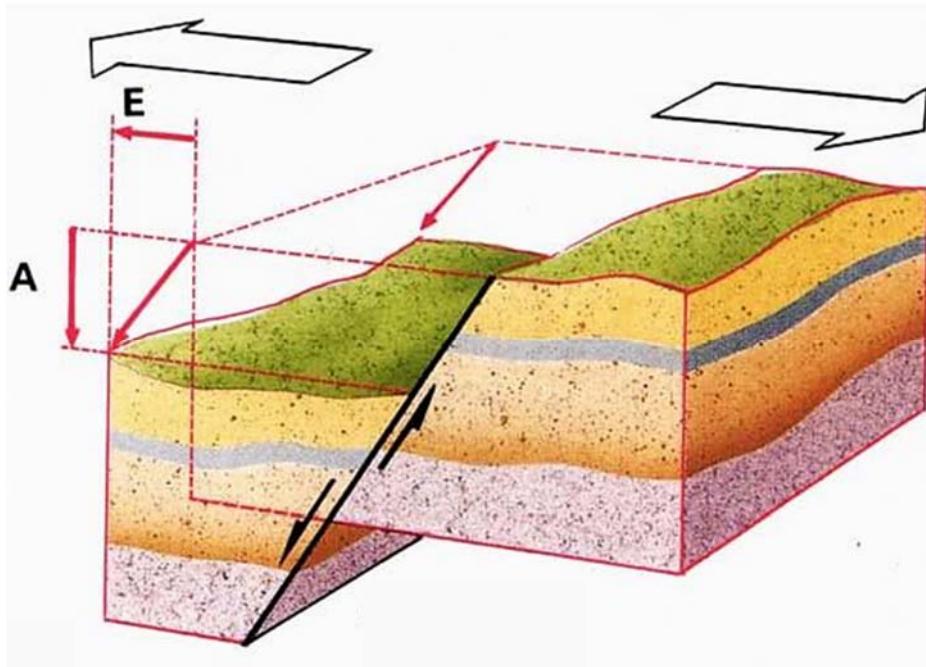
- **Normal** (extension)
- **Reverse** (compression)
- **Strike-slip** (shear)



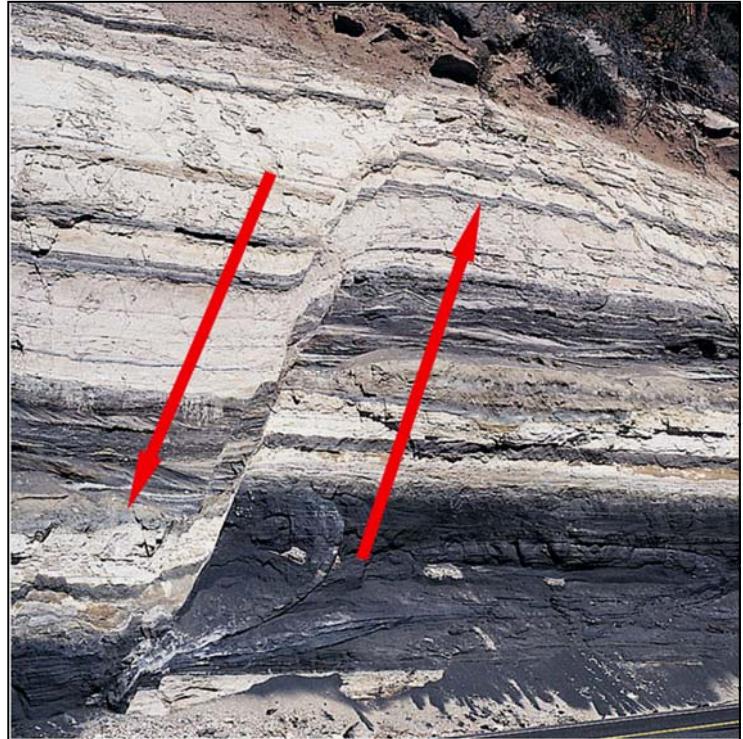
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Extension: normal fault



Extension: normal fault

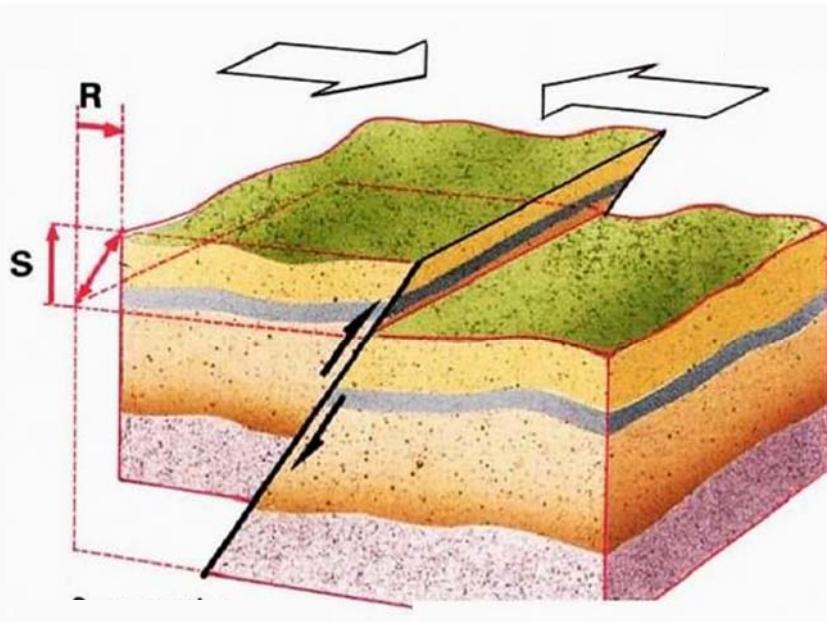


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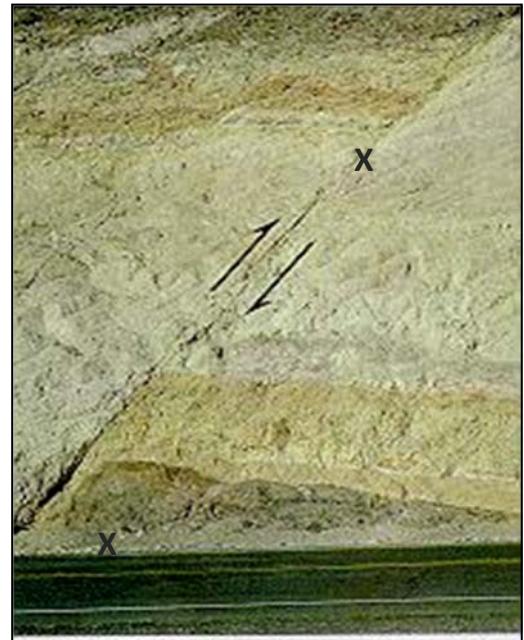
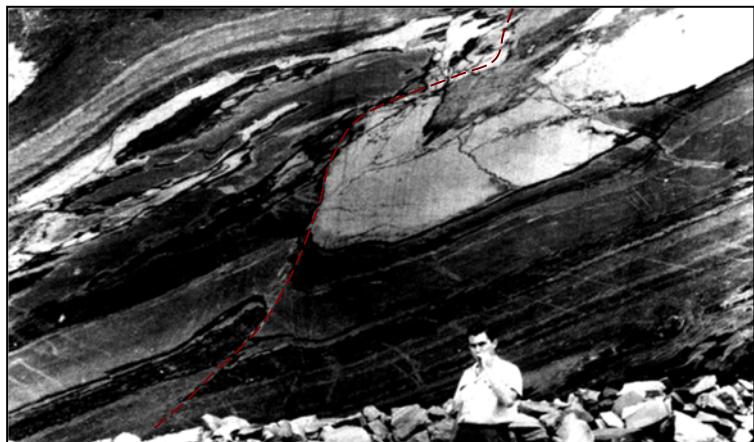
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Compression: reverse fault



Compression: reverse fault



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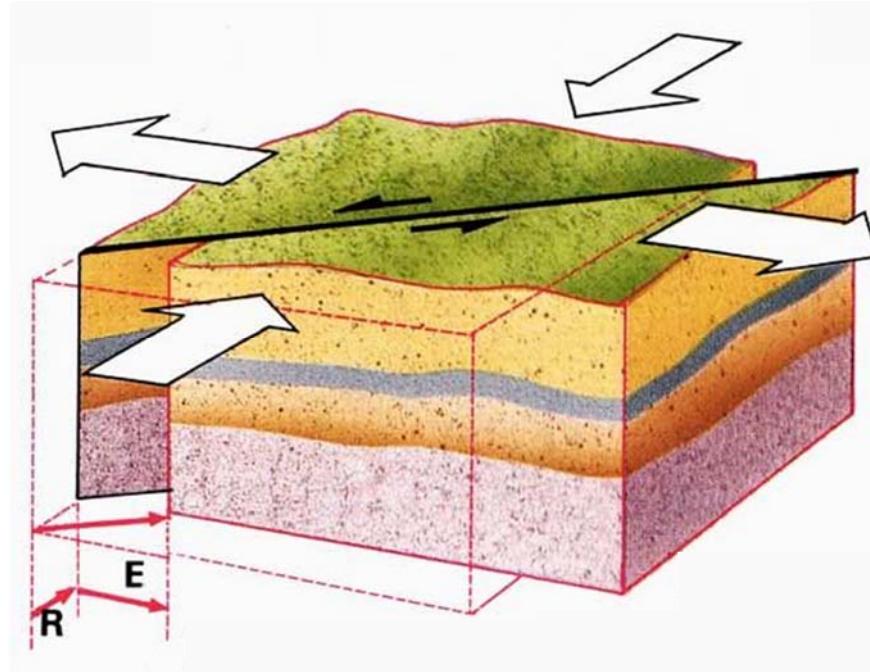
51

Fold & thrust



Faulted fold structure

Shear: strike-slip faults



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Shear: strike-slip faults



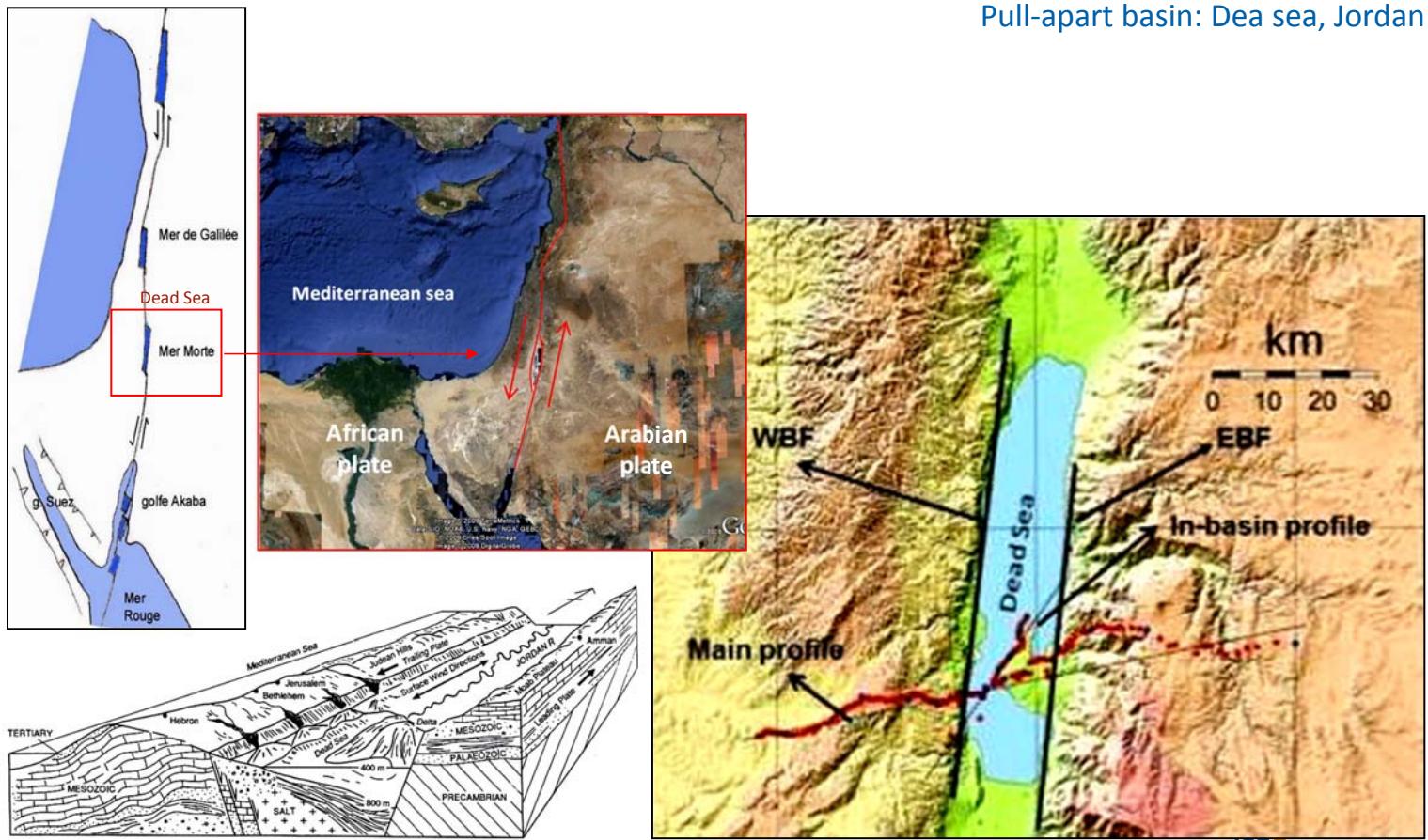
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Strike-slip basins: examples

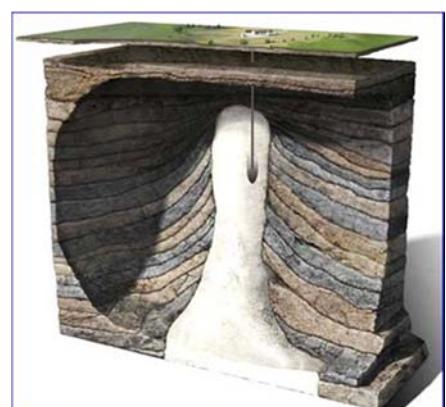
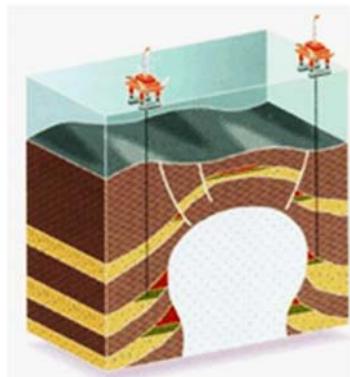
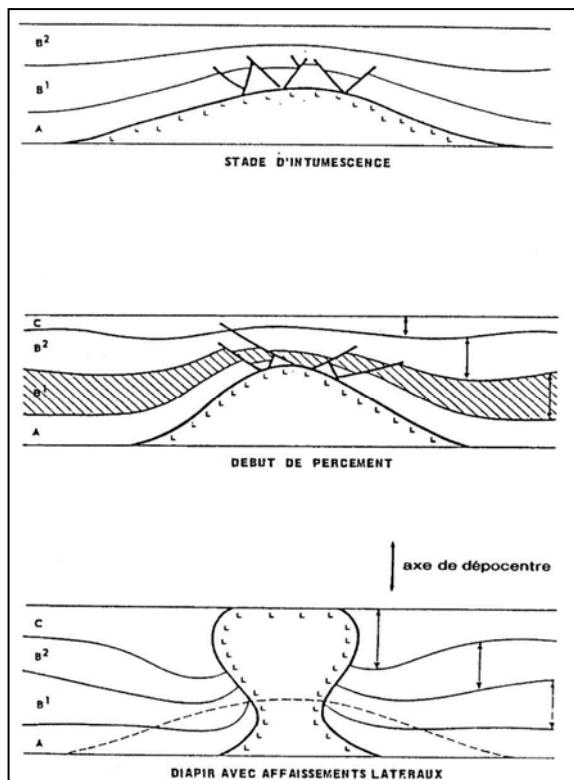
Pull-apart basin: Dead sea, Jordan



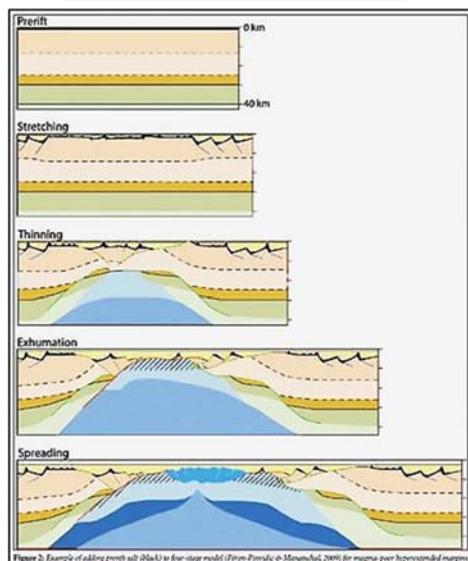
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Salt tectonics: salt dome (diapir) evolution



Typical salt dome geometry
(seismic section)



Constant salt volume
(except during last stage: dissolution)

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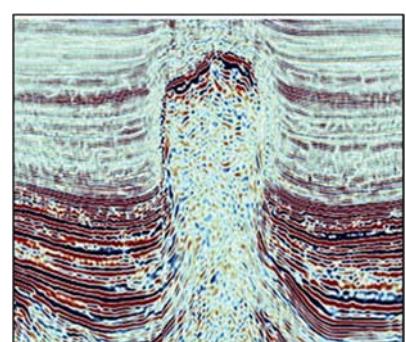


Figure 2: Example of adding preift salt (black) to four-stage model (Piron-Pereira & Menandou, 2006) for margins over hyperextended margins

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- ▶ Some zones of the globe are in extension, others in compression: this defines the style of crustal deformations
- ▶ These relative movements generate regional constraints that are the source of crustal deformations
- ▶ Under the action of regional constraints, sediments and rocks undergo variable deformation, either ductile (folds) or brittle (faults)
- ▶ Two types of ductile deformation (folding):
 - Anticline [convex]
 - Syncline [concave]
- ▶ Three types of brittle deformation (faulting):
 - Normal (extension)
 - Reverse (compression)
 - Strike-slip (shearing/sliding)

End Day#1

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Notes



Sedimentary rocks

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Sedimentary rocks



- ▶ **Rock definitions - Specificity of sedimentary rocks**
- ▶ **Clastic rocks**
- ▶ **Carbonatic rocks**
- ▶ **Evaporitic rocks**
- ▶ **Organic rocks**

Three types of rocks on Earth:

► Magmatic (igneous) rocks

- Formed by cooling and crystallization of magmas:
- slowly, at great depth: plutonic rocks (e.g. granites) → Continental crust
- quickly, at shallow depth or surface: volcanic rocks (e.g. basalts) → Oceanic crust

► Metamorphic rocks

- Formed by transformation of pre-existing rocks under elevated pressures and/or temperatures (e.g. schists, gneiss)
- Recrystallized (i.e. recombination of existing minerals)

► Sedimentary rocks

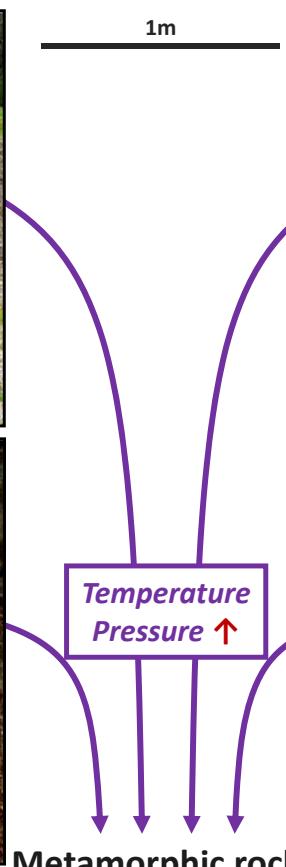
- Formed at surface:
- by mechanical processes, i.e. erosion of pre-existing rocks, transportation and deposition (e.g. sandstones, shales)
- by chemical / biochemical processes (e.g. precipitation) followed by moderate depth burial (e.g. limestones)

Rock samples

Igneous rocks



Sedimentary rocks

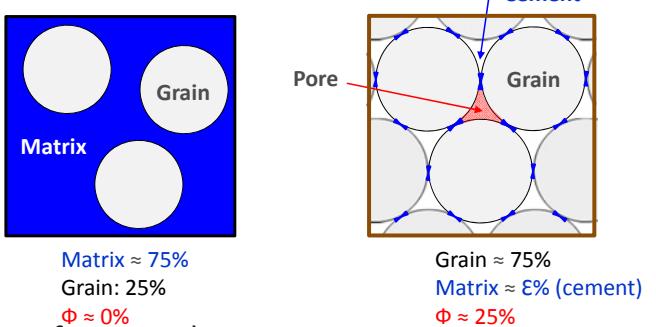


Sedimentary rocks:

- ▶ are the only formations that can generate and accumulate hydrocarbons
- ▶ form at the surface of the Earth, by accumulation of particles (weathered minerals, debris, ...) , or by chemical precipitation
- ▶ represent only 5% of the Earth's crust volume but cover 75% of its surface
- ▶ generally deposit as successive layers (strata, bedding)

Characteristics of sedimentary rocks

Sedimentary rock characteristics:

- ▶ **Grains**
 - Mineralogy
 - Grain size (granulometry)
 - Grain shape (morphology)
 - Sorting
 - ▶ **Pores (void spaces)**
 - **Porosity** (percentage of void volume > various types of porosity)
 - **Effective porosity** (interconnected voids)
 - **Permeability** (ability to allow a fluid to flow)
 - ▶ **“Matrix”**
 - **Matrix** (primary binding material, deposited with grains)
 - **Cement** (secondary binding material, deposited after sedimentation, i.e. diagenetic)
- 
- Matrix ≈ 75%
Grain: 25%
 $\Phi \approx 0\%$
- Cement
Pore
Grain
Matrix ≈ 0% (cement)
 $\Phi \approx 25\%$
- Reservoir parameters !

Classification of sedimentary rocks

► Clastics

Accumulation of debris (alteration, weathering, erosion, destruction)

- Conglomerate
- Sand (sandstone)
- Clay (shale)

► Carbonates

Chemical precipitation or bio-fixation of dissolved calcium carbonate in water

- Limestone
- Dolomite

► Evaporites

Salt deposition from highly concentrated brines (partial or total water evaporation)

- Anhydrite
- Halite

► Organics

Fossilization of organic matter (deposition and preservation)

- Coals
- Kerogen

Notes

- ▶ Rock definitions - Specificity of sedimentary rocks
- ▶ Clastic rocks
- ▶ Carbonatic rocks
- ▶ Evaporitic rocks
- ▶ Organic rocks

Definition of silici-clastic rocks

- ▶ Siliciclastics are detrital sediments resulting from the accumulation of debris from erosion / alteration / weathering of existing outcropping rocks.
- ▶ The main mineral components are quartz (SiO_2), feldspars, micas and clays.
- ▶ Clastic rocks are classified according to their grain size and shape:
 - Conglomerates / Breccias
 - Sandstones
 - Siltstones
 - Shales (Claystones)
 - (Sandy and shaly sediment family)



Formation of clastic rocks

► Weathering and erosion (of outcropping rocks)

- Chemical weathering (alteration)

Agent: rain (+ dissolved CO₂)

- solutions
 - grains

- Mechanical weathering (erosion)

Agents: gravity, freeze/thaw, running water, wind, glaciers

- Block, grains, particles

▶ **Transport** (of debris + solutions and colloidal particles)

Agents:

- continental: water (torrents, streams & rivers), wind, ice (glaciers)
 - oceanic: currents, waves, tides, gravity flow deposits

► Deposition

- Progressive decrease of current speed leads to deposition of transported load, with resulting sorting according to grain weight (and size)

Grain size classification

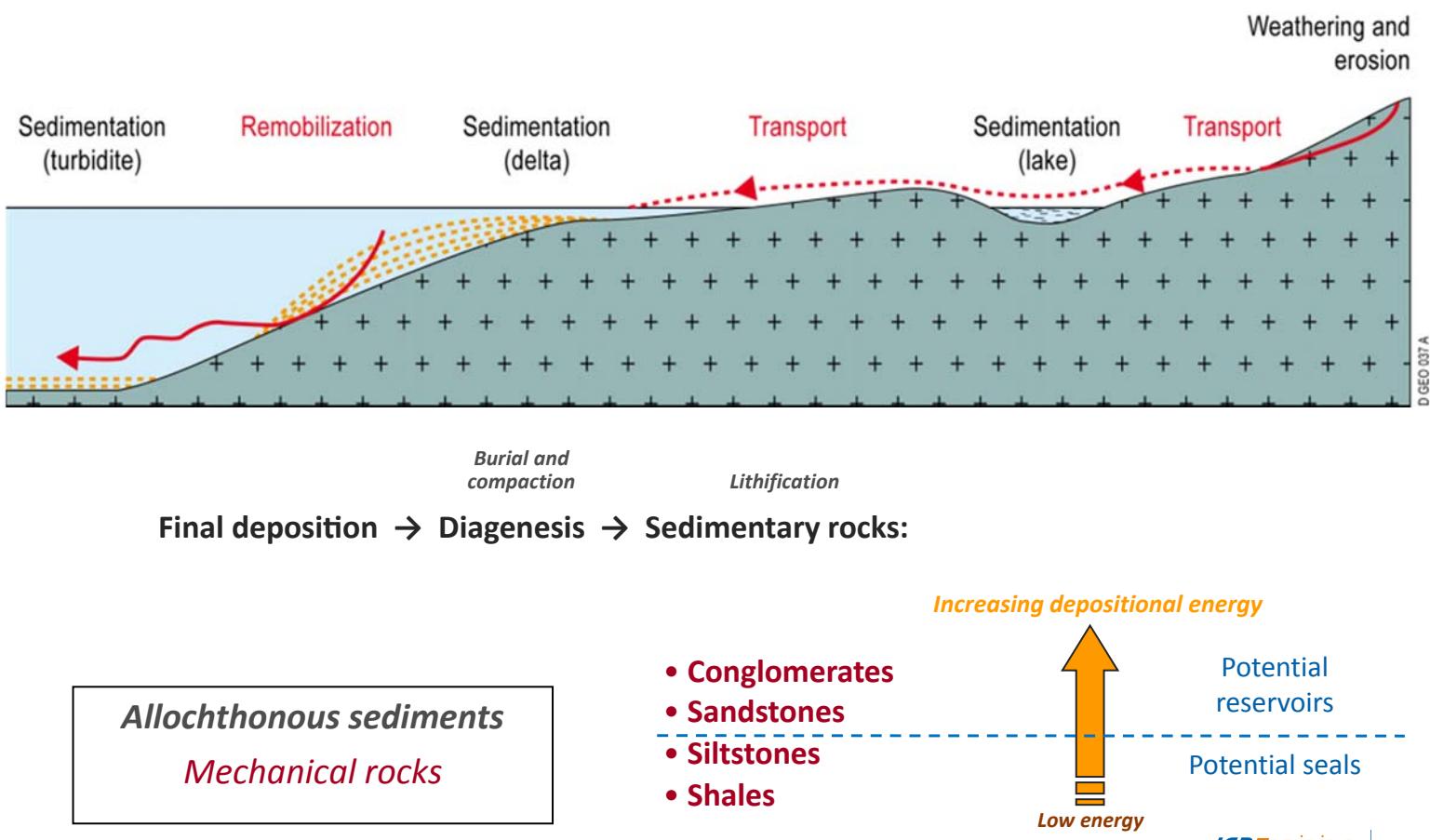
Fractions of mm	1 256	1 128	1 64	1 32	1 16	1 8	1 4	1 2							
	1 µm	2	4	8	16	31	62.5	125	250	500	1 mm	2	4	8	16
LUTITES	Lutites						Arenites						Rudites		
SEDIMENT	Clay						Sands						Granules		
ROCK	Claystones						Sandstones						Conglomerates		
	< Shales >						Silt						Pebbles		
							Siltstones								
							Very fine								
							Fine								
							Medium								
							Coarse								
							Very coarse								

Table showing classification of granulometric classes

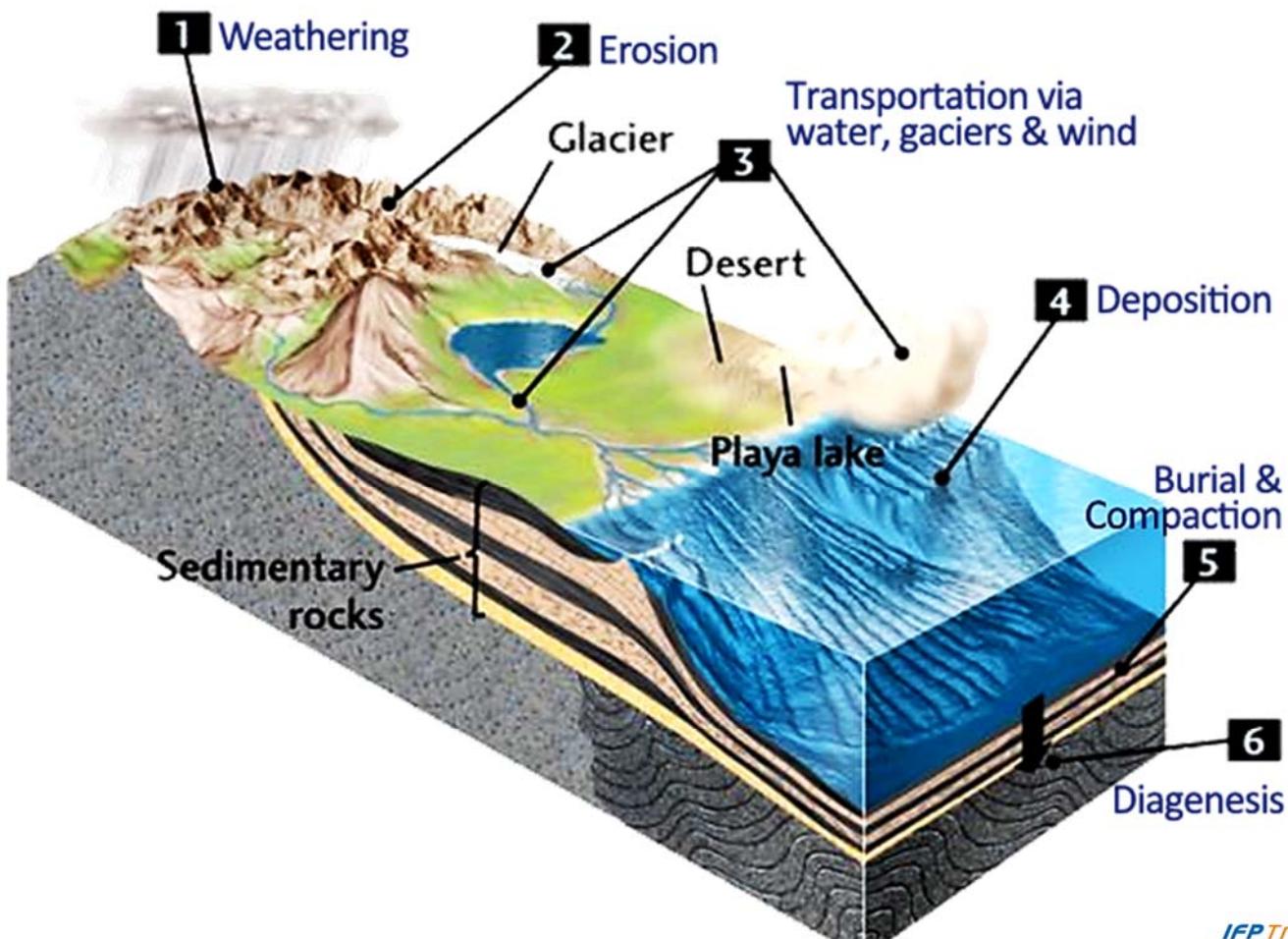
The grain-size are given in mm or μm , fractions of mm

Clastic rocks classification is complex because several variables are involved. Particle size (both average size and range of particles sizes), particles composition, cement and matrix type must all be taken into consideration. Shales (mostly clay minerals) are generally further classified according to composition and bedding.

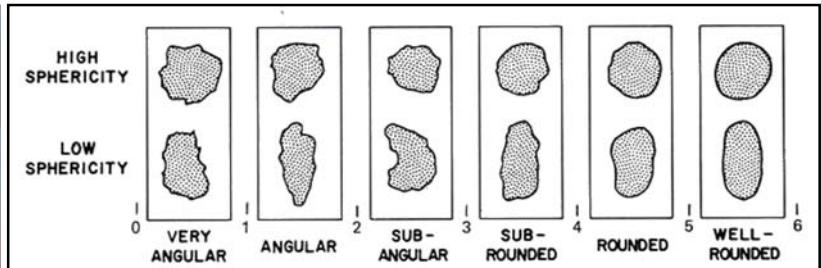
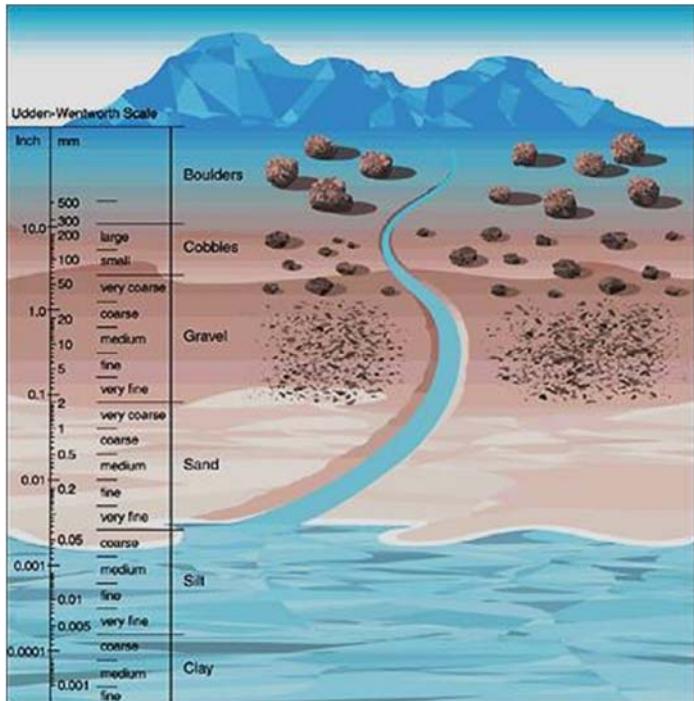
Deposition of clastic sediments



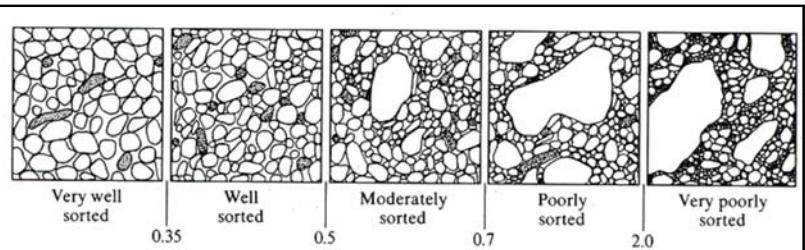
Clastic depositional environments



Clastic depositional processes



Evolution of sediments size, shape and sorting with distance (transport)



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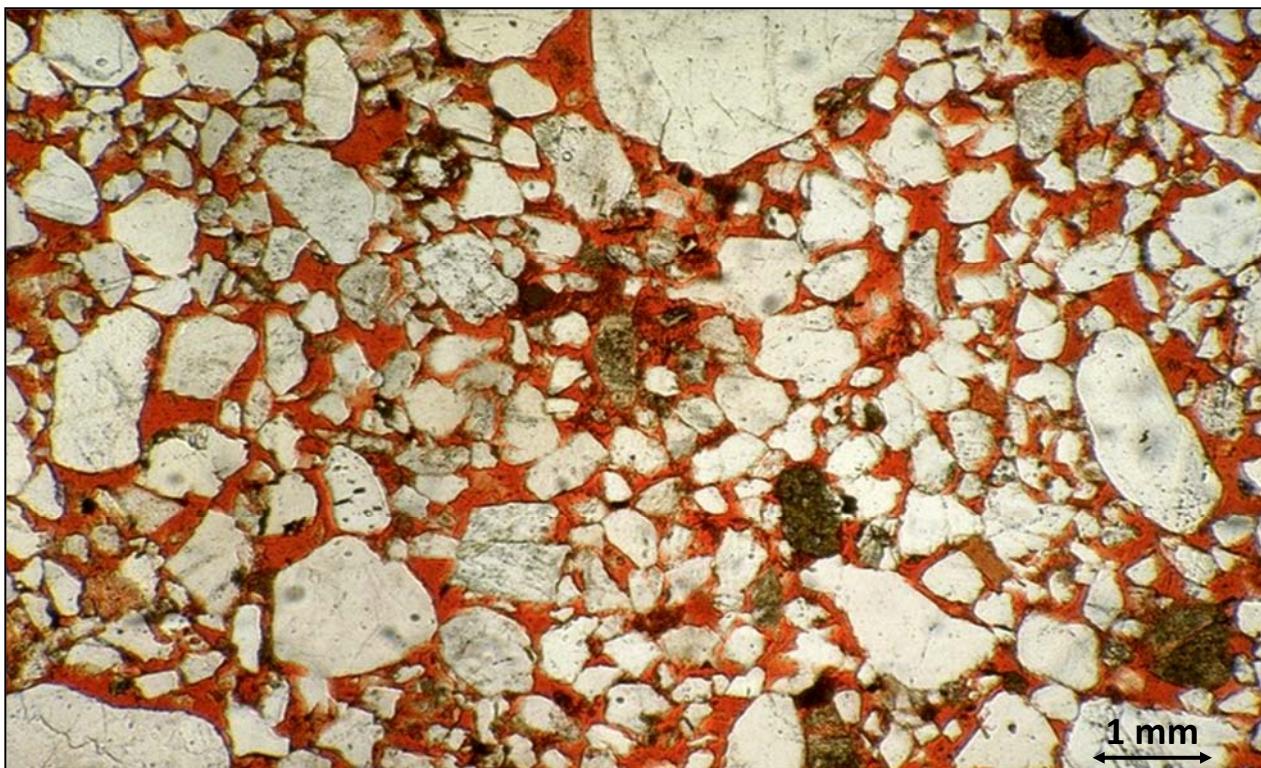
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Fluvial clastic rock outcrop



Triassic Sherwood sandstones
(basal conglomerates)



Sandstone – White: grains (quartz), Red: pores (resin)

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Clastics

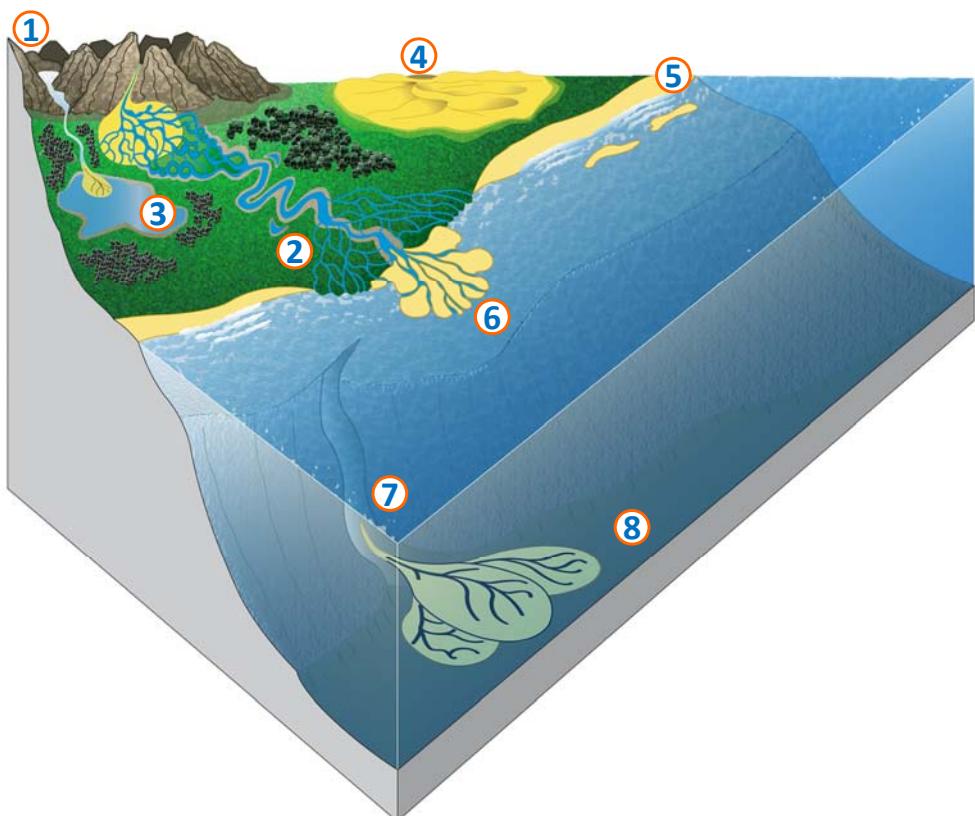


- ▶ **Clastic sediments are:**
 - Allochthonous erosional products (weathering, alteration and transportation)
 - Transported by fluvial water, wind, ice
 - Deposited in basins
- ▶ **The main depositional process of clastic sediments is progressive deposition due to gradual decay of flow velocity (water or density current), i.e. decreasing transport energy**
- ▶ **Fluvial, deltaic and turbiditic depositional sequences are mostly fining-upward**
- ▶ **The evolution of a fluvial system involves both erosional and decantation processes (e.g. meander)**
- ▶ **The development of a delta is mostly due to progradation (if constant sediment supply and sea level)**
- ▶ **The main source of continental sediments is erosion of outcropping rocks**
- ▶ **The main sources of deep sea deposits are reworked existing sediments (e.g. from deltas)**

Clastic depositional environments

Continental

1. Glacial
2. Fluvial
 - Alluvial fan
 - Braided
 - Meandering (point bar, crevasse splay)
 - Flood plain (oxbow lake)
 - Anastomosing (channel levee)
 - Coastal plain (swamp)
3. Lacustrine
4. Eolian (dunes)



Marine

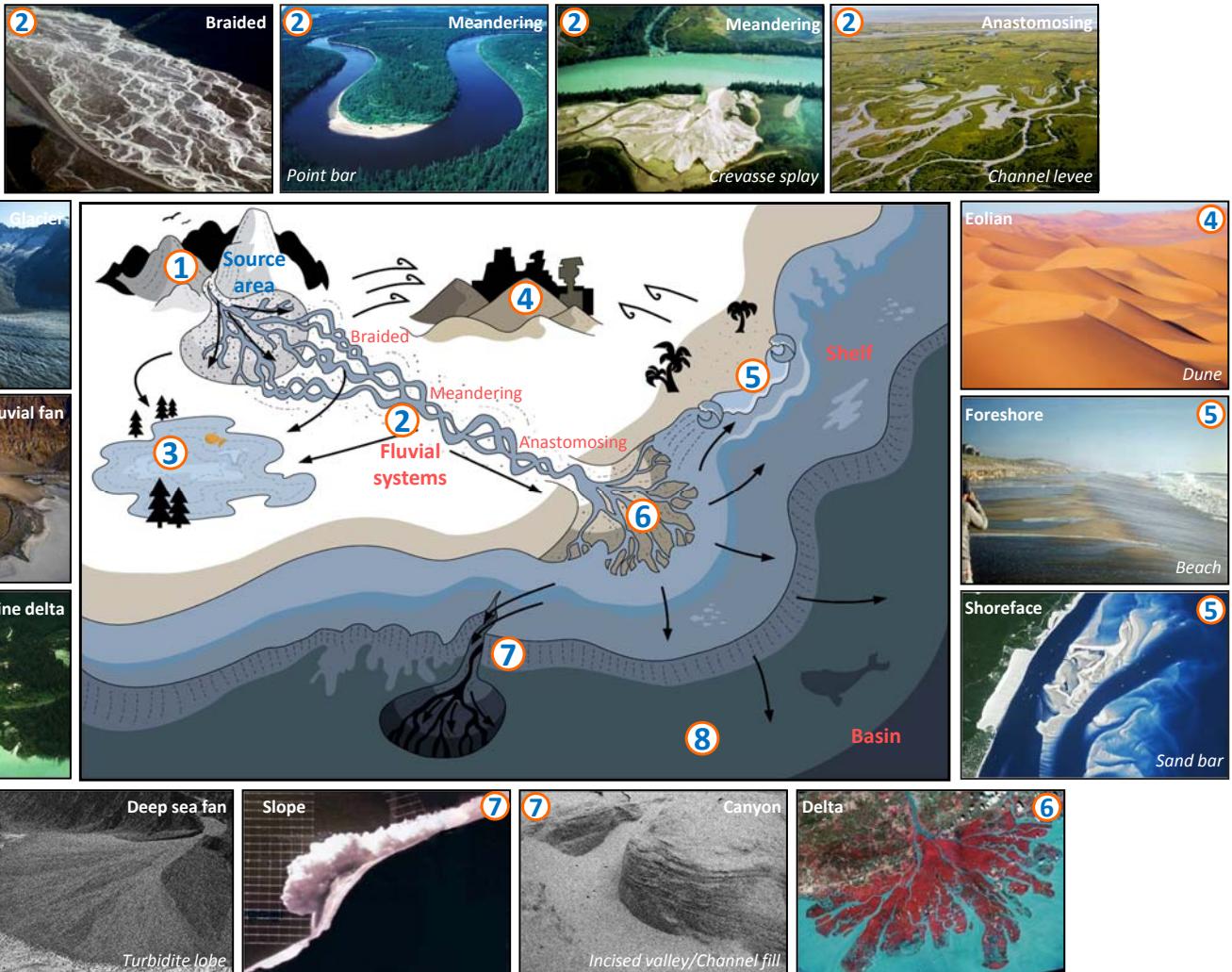
5. Shoreline (coast/beach)
6. Delta
 - Fluvial-dominated
 - Wave-dominated
 - Tide-dominated
7. Slope, canyon
8. Basin
 - Deep sea fan (Turbidite)
 - Abyssal plain

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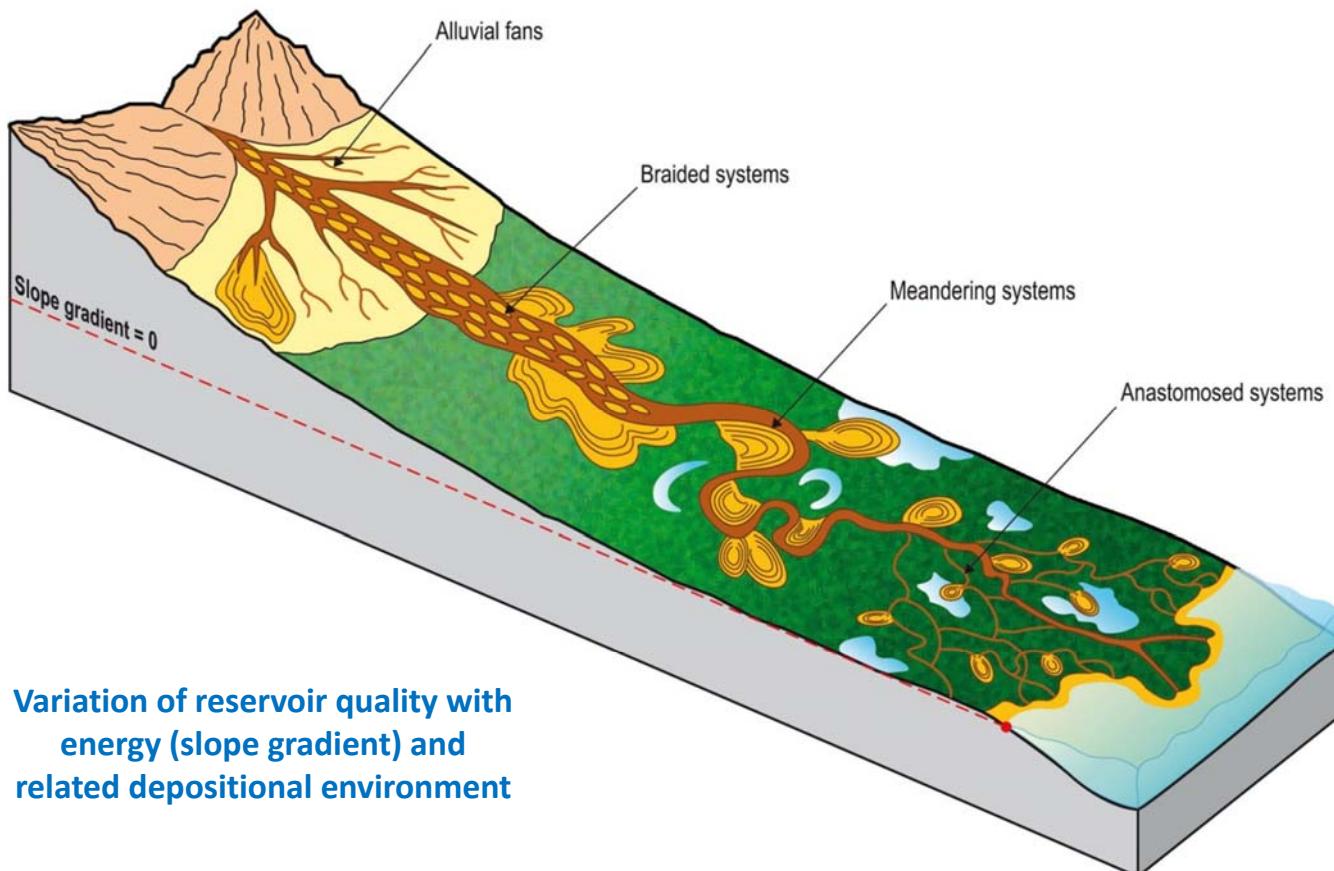
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Clastic depositional environments



Fluvial siliciclastic environments



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Fluvial depositional settings

► River channel pattern is the combination of

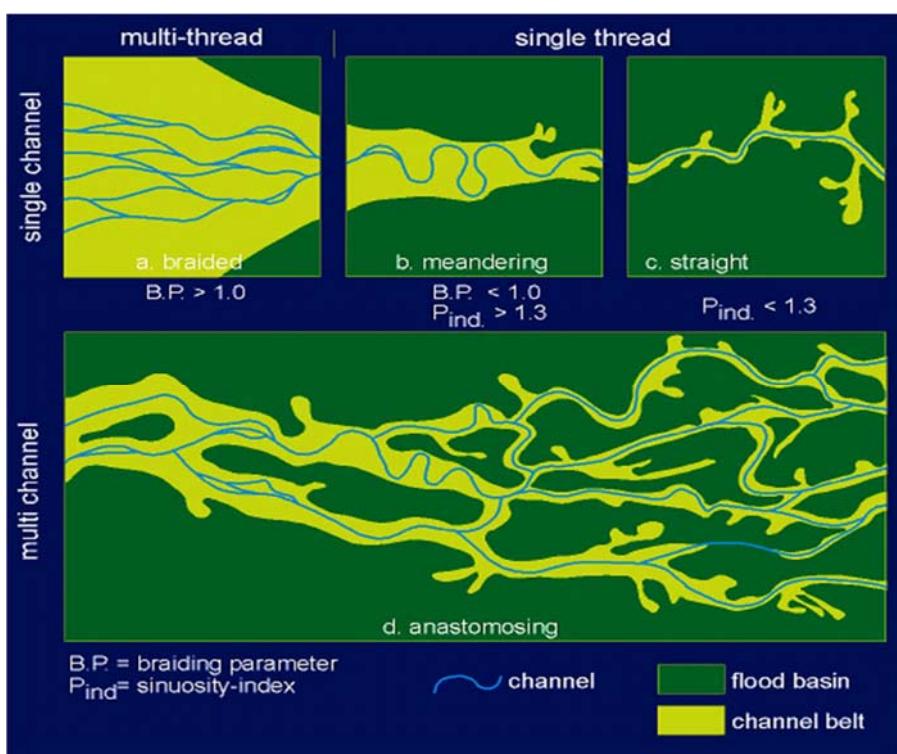
- Bedload vs suspended load
- Slope gradient
- River bank (levee) stability
- Flow fluctuations

► Downslope decrease of

- Slope gradient
- Entrenchment
- Stream power
- Grainsize
- Bedload

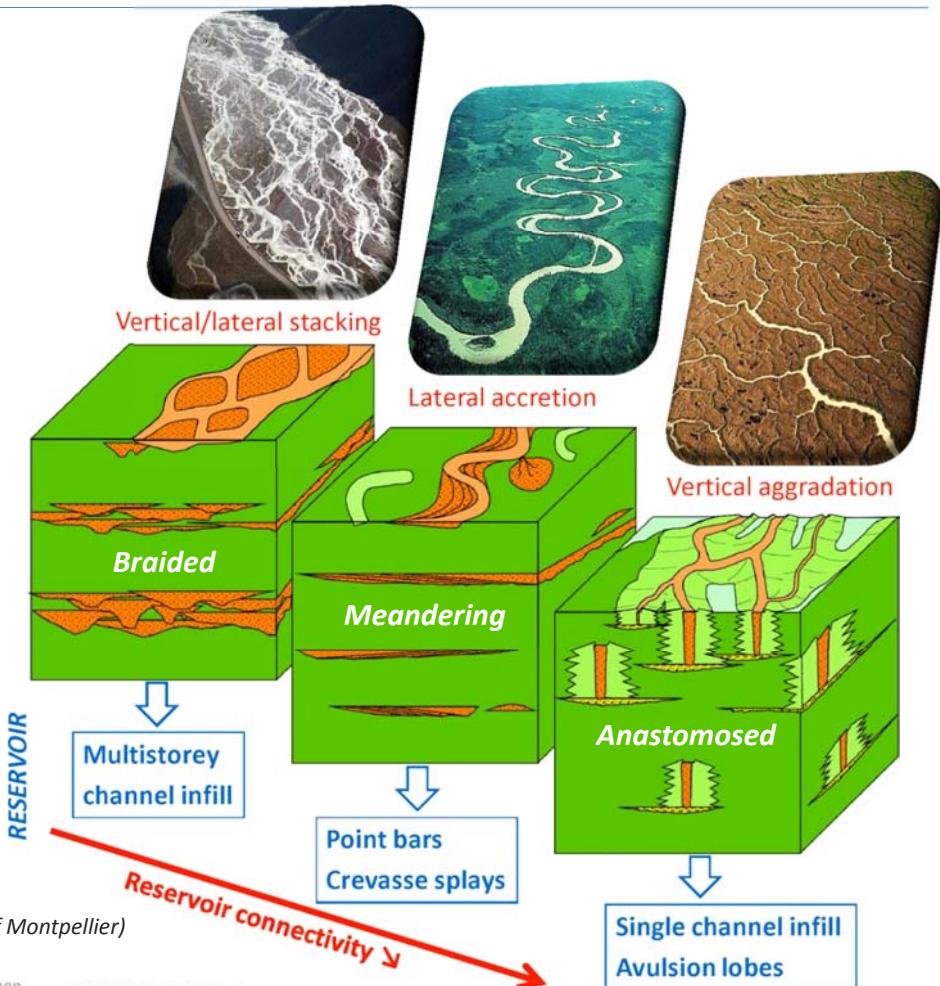
► Downslope increase of

- Channel stability
- Network organization
- Grain sorting
- Flow steadiness



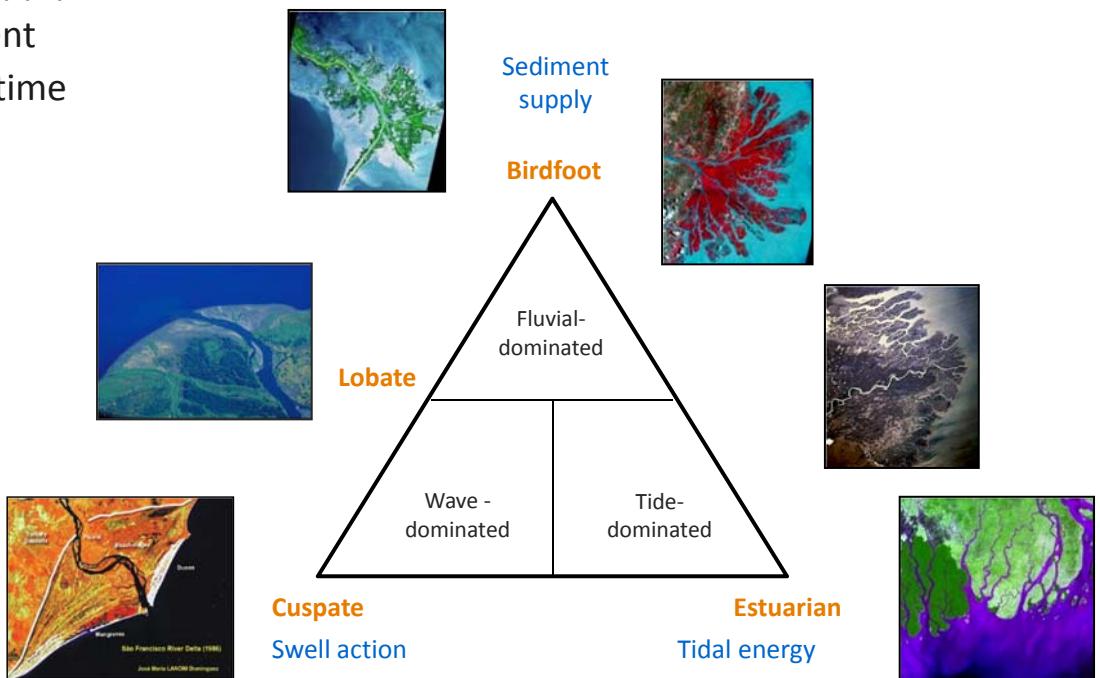
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River facies vs Reservoir geometry



Delta shapes & energy

- ▶ Morphological classification of deltas based on **delta front shape** which reflects:
 - Relative importance of river, tide or/and wave processes
 - Sediment supply
 - Slope gradient
 - Duration in time



- ▶ Rock definitions - Specificity of sedimentary rocks
- ▶ Clastic rocks
- ▶ Carbonate rocks
- ▶ Evaporitic rocks
- ▶ Organic rocks

Definition of carbonate rocks

- ▶ Carbonate sediments result from **chemical precipitation** and from **fixation** by living organisms of the calcium carbonate dissolved in the water
- ▶ Chemical composition of carbonatic sediments:
 - $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 = \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^- = \text{CO}_3^{--} + 2 \text{H}^+$
 - $\text{CO}_3^{--} + \text{Ca}^{++} = \text{CaCO}_3$ (i.e. calcite or aragonite)
- ▶ Two main types of carbonates:
 - Limestone (Ca CO_3 : calcium)
 - Dolomite (Ca,Mg CO_3 : calcium–magnesium)
- ▶ They are very important prospects



Formation of carbonate rocks

► Chemical precipitation

- Equilibrium variation of soluble calcium carbonate in water.

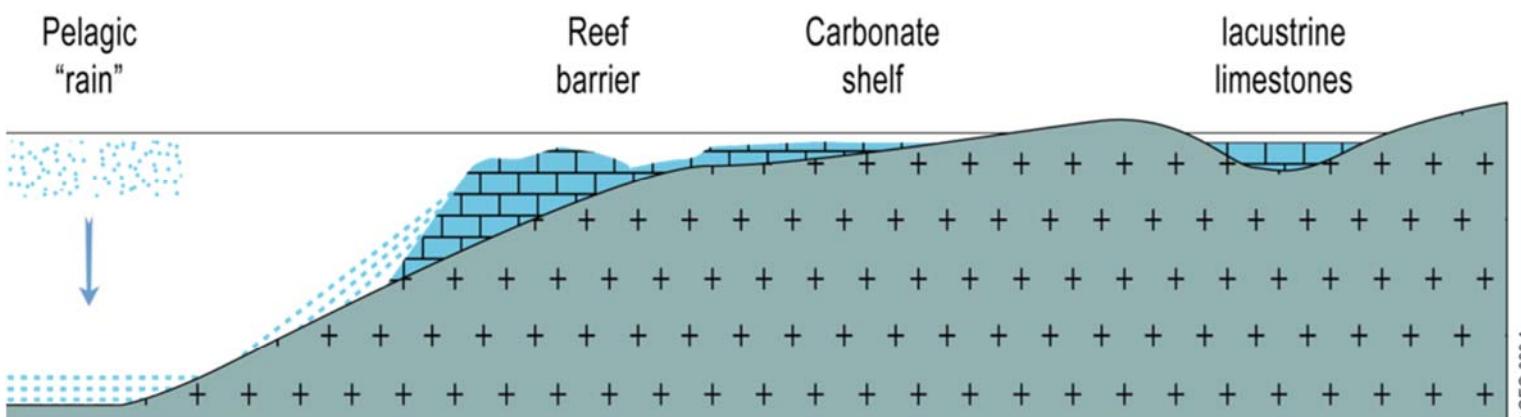
Factors can include:

- Relative CO₂ pressure in the atmosphere
- Water parameters:
 - temperature
 - salinity
 - agitation (energy)
- Amount of vegetal and animal life

► Biochemical fixation

- Fixation of carbonate in the skeleton of living organisms (e.g. plankton, shells)
- Death of organisms > decantation of corpses
- Sedimentation and preservation (variable) of skeletons

Deposition of carbonatic sediments

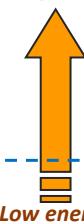


Final deposition → Diagenesis → Sedimentary rocks:

Autochthonous sediments
Chemical rocks

- **Grainstone**
- **Packstone**
- **Wackestone**
- **Mudstone**

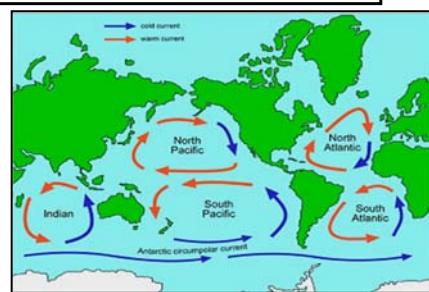
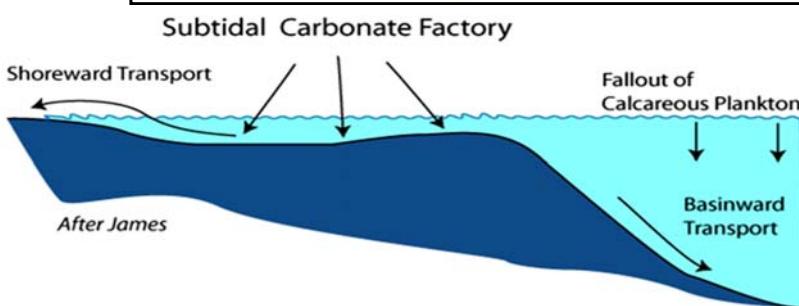
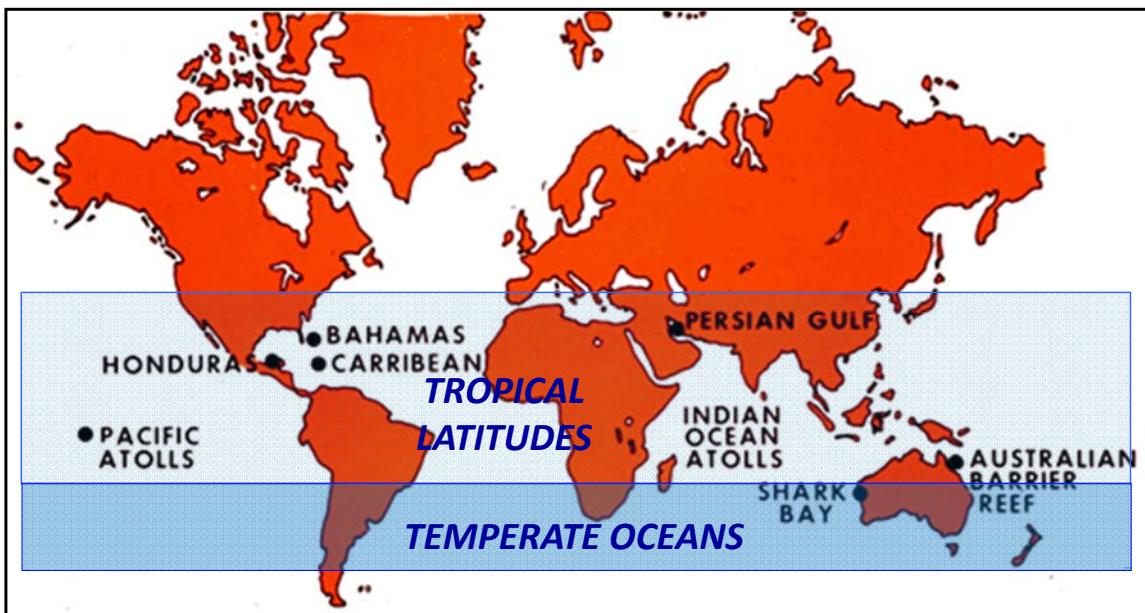
Increasing depositional energy



Potential reservoirs

Potential seals

Carbonate depositional areas



Zones of carbonate production and accumulation

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Classification of carbonates

Dunham's textural classification of carbonate rocks

Depositional texture recognizable						Depositional texture not recognizable	
Original components not bound together during deposition						Original components were bound together	
Contains mud (clay and fine silt-size carbonate)			Lacks mud and is grain supported				
Mud-supported		Grain-supported	Best potential reservoirs				
Less than 10% grains	More than 10% grains						
Mudstone	Wackestone	Packstone	Grainstone	Boundstone	Crystalline		
Increasing depositional energy							

Carbonate rock outcrop



Chalk cliffs – Etretat, France

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Carbonate rock (scanning electron microscopy)



Chalk (Coccolites)

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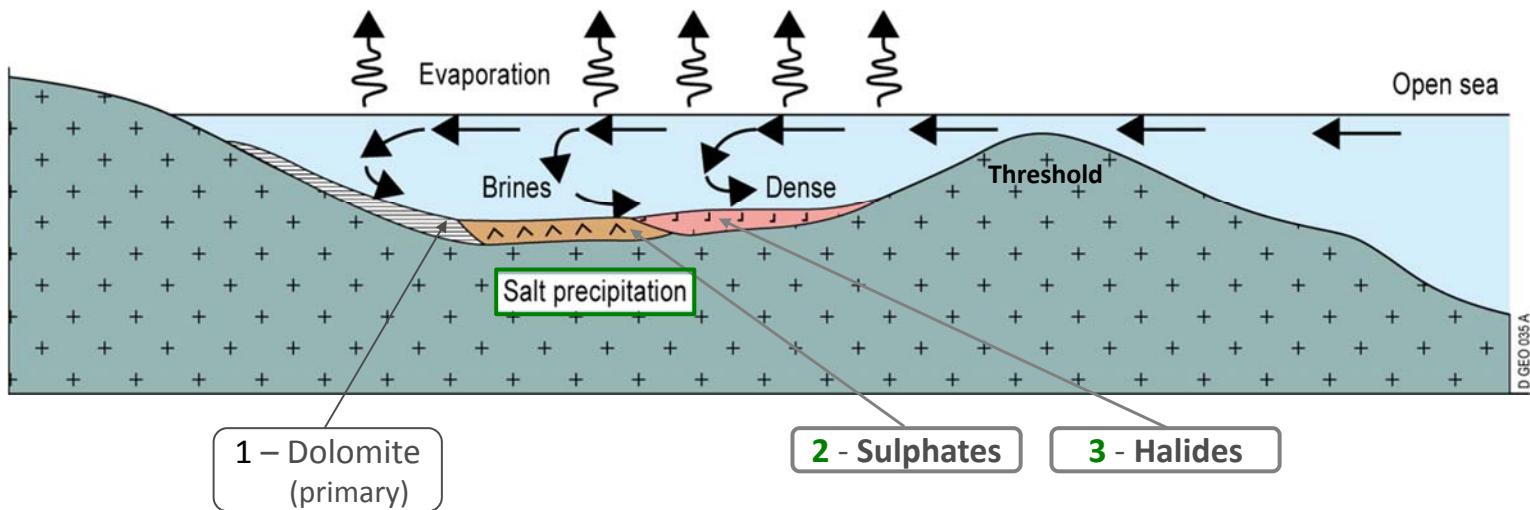
- ▶ Rock definitions - Specificity of sedimentary rocks
- ▶ Clastic rocks
- ▶ Carbonatic rocks
- ▶ **Evaporitic rocks**
- ▶ Organic rocks

Definition of evaporites or salt rocks

- ▶ Partial or total water evaporation can generate rocks from highly concentrated saline deposits (i.e. brines).
- ▶ These chemically produced rocks are called evaporites because they result from salt precipitation due to the evaporation of brackish waters.
- ▶ Depending on water composition, they can be:
 - Gypsum, Anhydrite (sulphates)
 - Halite, Sylvite (halides & chlorides)
- ▶ Salt rocks can be good cap rocks (seals) for all hydrocarbon accumulations.
- ▶ They play a very important part in hydrocarbon systems evolution.



Formation and deposition of evaporites



Salt rocks → Potential seals (cap rocks)

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Artificial and natural evaporitic accumulation



Salt plant ("marais salants")
Île de Ré, France



Uyuni salt lake, Bolivian cordillera (+4000m ss)



Dead sea, Jordan (-400m ss)

- ▶ Rock definitions - Specificity of sedimentary rocks
- ▶ Clastic rocks
- ▶ Carbonatic rocks
- ▶ Evaporitic rocks
- ▶ Organic rocks

Definition of organic rocks

- ▶ Organic rocks come from the fossilization of the organic matter produced by living organisms (plants or animals)
- ▶ Depending on the origin of organic matter, they are called:
 - Coal, anthracite, peat,...
- ▶ Organic rocks are fundamental in the hydrocarbon domain:
 - they are the source rocks of hydrocarbons



Kerogen = lithified organic matter after burial & compaction



Plants = 90% of biomass



► Clastics

- Transport and accumulation of weathered minerals or altered bio fragments
 - conglomerate, sandstone, shale [\neq grainsize]

► Carbonates

- Chemical or biochemical precipitation of dissolved calcium carbonate
 - limestone, dolomite [\neq texture, composition]

► Evaporites

- Salt deposition from concentrated brines (water evaporation)
 - sulphates, chlorides [\neq composition]

► Organics

- Deposition and preservation (fossilization) of organic matter
 - coal, kerogen [\neq origin]

Sedimentary rocks - Key points #1



Nature and origin of sedimentary rocks

► Accumulation of successive layers (stratification, bedding) of:

- transported minerals, on surface or in aquatic environments (fluvial, marine)
- precipitated chemical elements (carbonates, evaporites)
- decanted fossils: dead plant fragments or animal skeletons (carbonates, organics)

► Sediment-to-rock processes

- Erosion of existing rocks
- Transportation (solid) and/or solution
- Sedimentation (deposition in topographic lows: basins)
- Transformation during burial (diagenesis, lithification)

Clastics vs Carbonates – 1/2

Siliciclastic rocks

- **Origin**
 - Allocthonous sediments
 - Erosion, weathering and alteration of outcrops → **Mechanical rocks**
- **Transport**
 - Rivers, wind, ice
 - Over variable distances (up to +1000 km)
 - Grainsize decrease with distance from source
- **Deposition**
 - Environments: fluvial, coastal, shelfal, basinal
 - Depositional dynamics: variable, from high to low energy
- **Specificity**
 - 3 families: conglomerate, sandstone, shale (\neq grainsize)
 - Variable reservoir quality (good porosity and permeability for high energy deposits)

Carbonate rocks

- **Origin**
 - Autochthonous sediments
 - Deposition *in situ* (precipitation, bio-fixation or crystallization) → **Chemical rocks**
- **Transport**
 - None
 - Over short distances (high energy environments)
- **Deposition**
 - Environments: lacustrine, shelfal, basinal
 - Depositional dynamics: local conditions, from high to low energy
- **Specificity**
 - 2 types: Limestone (CaCO_3), dolomite (Ca, MgCO_3)
 - Variable reservoir quality (good porosity and permeability for high energy deposits)
 - Strong impact of chemical transformations after deposition (diagenesis) on reservoir properties

Clastics vs Carbonates – 2/2

Nature vs Texture

		TEXTURE [Energy]		Sediment
		Low E.	High E.	
NATURE [Chemistry]	Mud [Boue]	Mud [Boue] Water+Dust	Sand [Sable] Grains	Rock
	Shale [Argile]		Sandstone [Grès]	
	Mudstone		Grainstone	
		Bad reservoir	Good reservoir	

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Petroleum systems

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Petroleum systems

- ▶ **Structure of hydrocarbons**
- ▶ **Origin and generation**
- ▶ **The Petroleum Trilogy**
- ▶ **Migration**
- ▶ **Traps**



Hydrocarbons structure

HYDROCARBON

Hydrogen : H

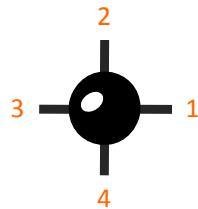


Valence = 1

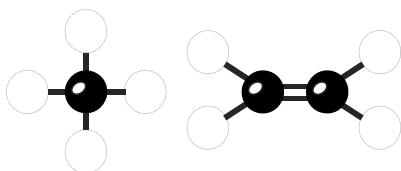


Simple bonds

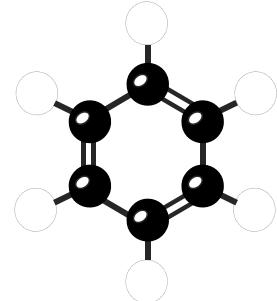
Carbon : C



Valence = 4



Various types of complex bonds



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Hydrocarbons classification

	Nb carbon atoms		Formula	density
Methane	C ₁		C ₁ H ₄	
Ethane	C ₂		C ₂ H ₆	⋮
Propane	C ₃		C ₃ H ₈	0,505
Butane	C ₄		C ₄ H ₁₀	0,585
Pentane	C ₅		C ₅ H ₁₂	0,631
Hexane	C ₆		C ₆ H ₁₄	0,664
Heptane	C ₇		C ₇ H ₁₆	0,688
Octane	C ₈		C ₈ H ₁₈	0,707
Nonane	C ₉		C ₉ H ₂₀	0,722
Decane	C ₁₀		C ₁₀ H ₂₂	0,727
⋮	⋮		⋮	⋮
Pentadecane	C ₁₅		C ₁₅ H ₃₂	0,766
Hexadecane	C ₁₆		C ₁₆ H ₃₄	
Eicosane	C ₂₀		C ₂₀ H ₄₂	
Tricontane	C ₃₀		C ₃₀ H ₆₂	

From light crude to heavy oil...



Sourakhany
(Caucase)



Arabian Light
(Mélange de référence Moyen Orient)
34° API



Barrow Island
(Australie)
37,7 °API



Brent
(Mer du Nord)
38,3 °API



Parentis
(Aquitaine)
33,5 °API



Mimizan
(Aquitaine)
12 °API



Arabian Heavy
27,4 °API



Pensylvanie



Santa-Barbara
(Californie)



Boscan
(Venezuela)
10,1 °API



Altamont
(Utah)



Minas
(Sumatra)
35 °API paraffineux

- ▶ Structure of hydrocarbons
- ▶ Origin and generation
- ▶ The Petroleum Trilogy
- ▶ Migration
- ▶ Traps

Origin of hydrocarbons

Transformation of organic matter (O.M.) from dead fauna or flora

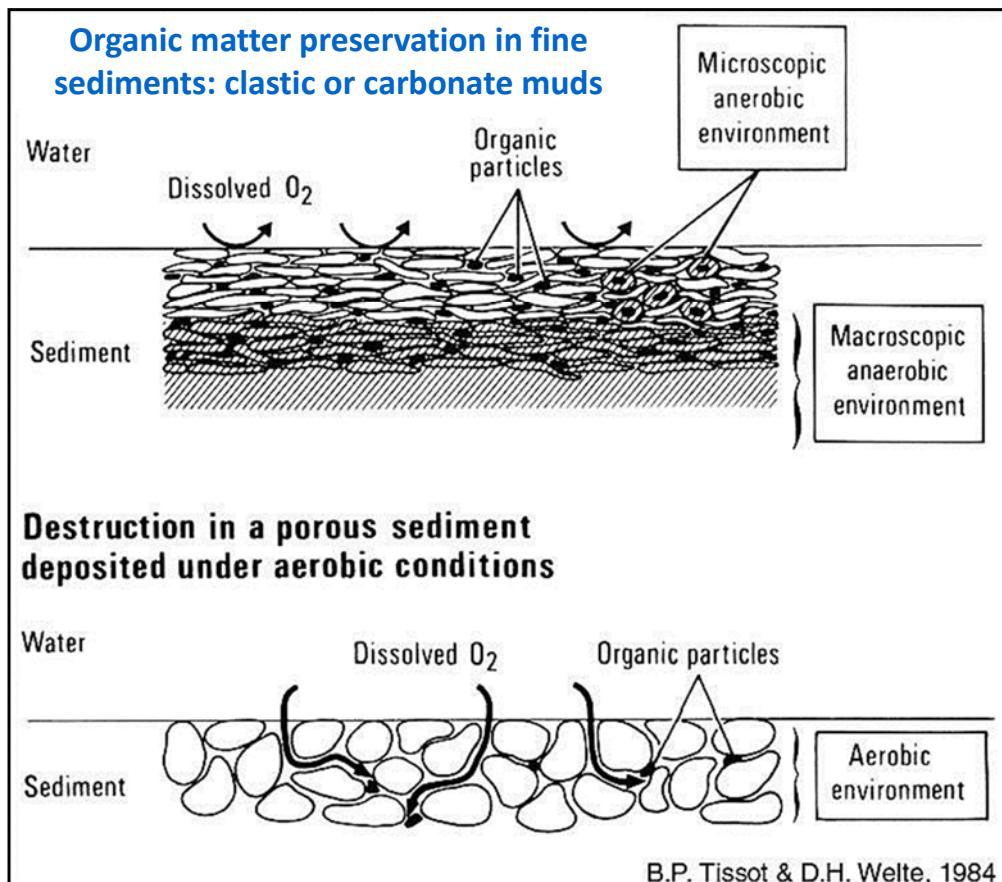
- ▶ Accumulation & preservation of O.M.
 - Accumulation in quiet geological environments (lake, delta, sea → muddy & anoxic environments)
 - Preservation depends on sediment type & rate, environment energy
- ▶ Modification of depositional conditions
 - Burial, compaction, water expulsion
 - Temperature & pressure increase
- ▶ Transformation of Kerogen into hydrocarbons
 - Oil
 - Gas (methane)

Kerogen: non soluble part of O.M. (i.e. lipids)

Maturation: chemical transformation, mainly due to temperature (and pressure) increase during burial

Source rock: rock with 1-10 % of kerogen which can eventually be transformed into hydrocarbons

Accumulation & preservation of O.M.



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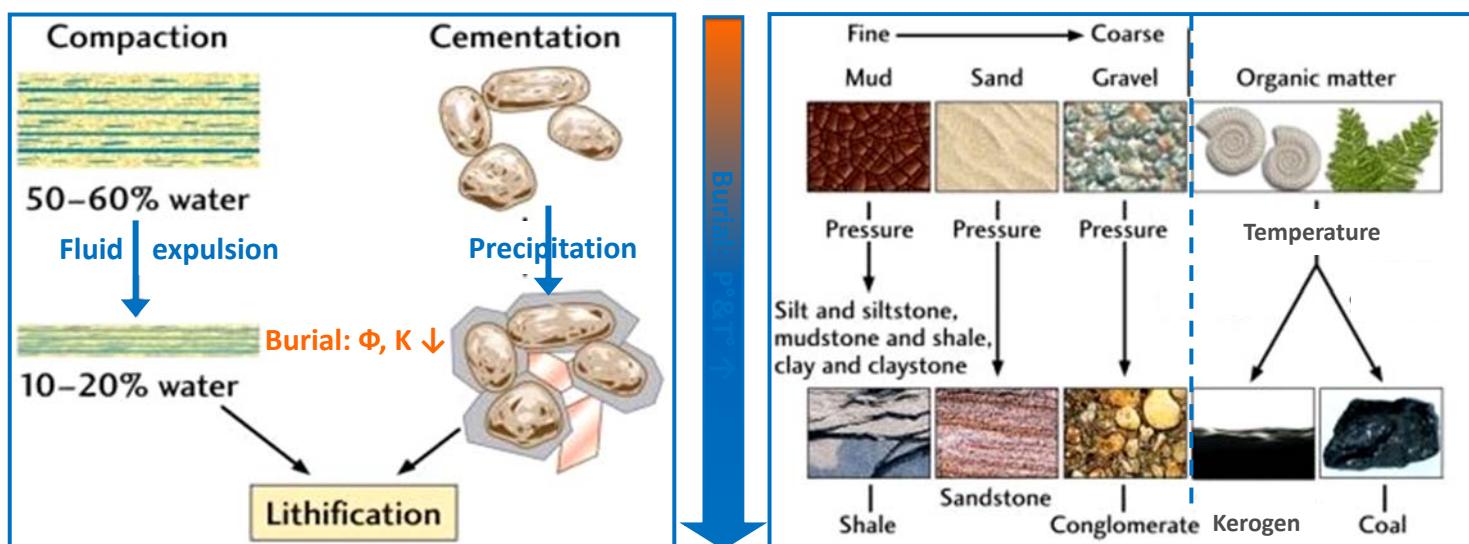
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Burial and diagenesis

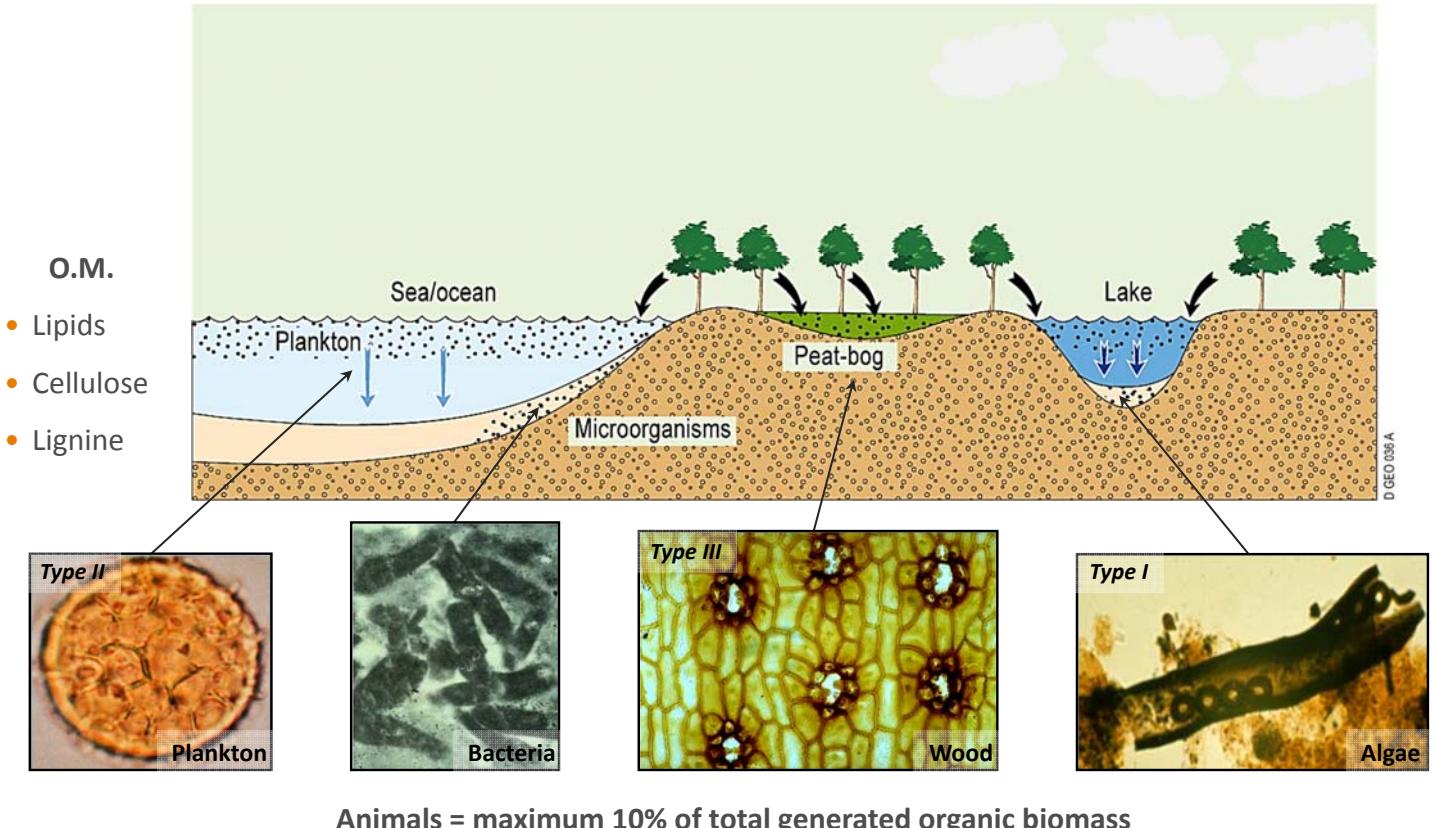
During burial, sediments are gradually turned into rocks

Compaction + Cementation [+ Diagenetic transformations] = Lithification



- Both P° and T° increase with burial and depth
- Both Φ and K decrease with burial and lithification

Origin of organic matter (OM)



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Transformation of O.M. & Kerogen

■ Diagenesis [$< 60^{\circ}\text{C}$]

Bacterial degradation
Immature stage

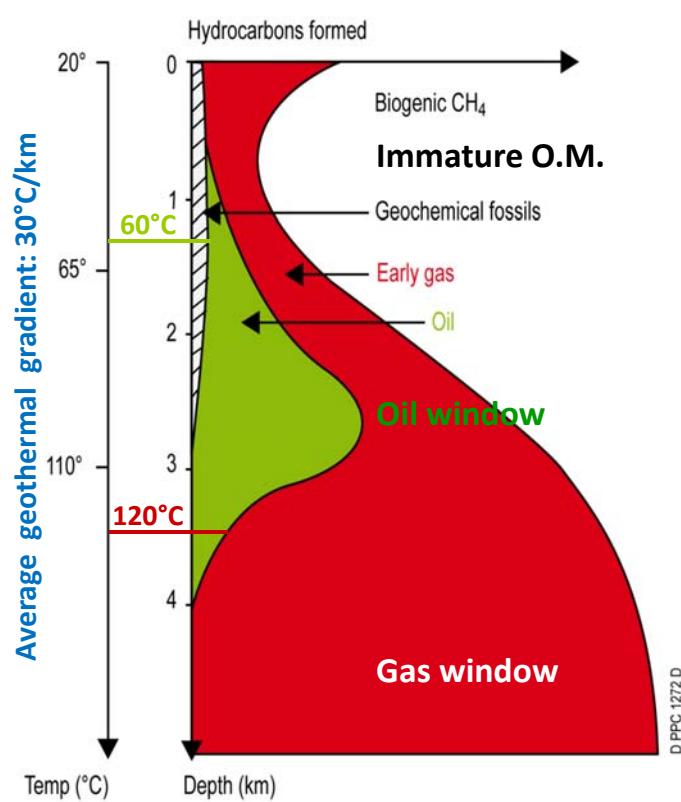
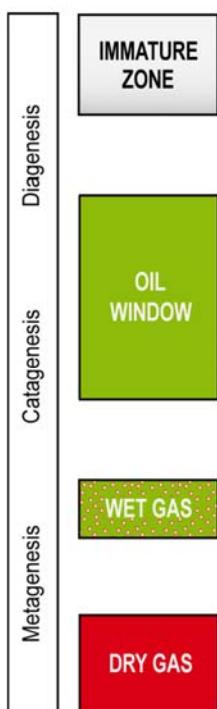
■ Catagenesis [from 60 to 120°C]

Thermal degradation
→ “weak” chemical bonds breaking
Oil window

■ Metagenesis [from 120 to 200°C]

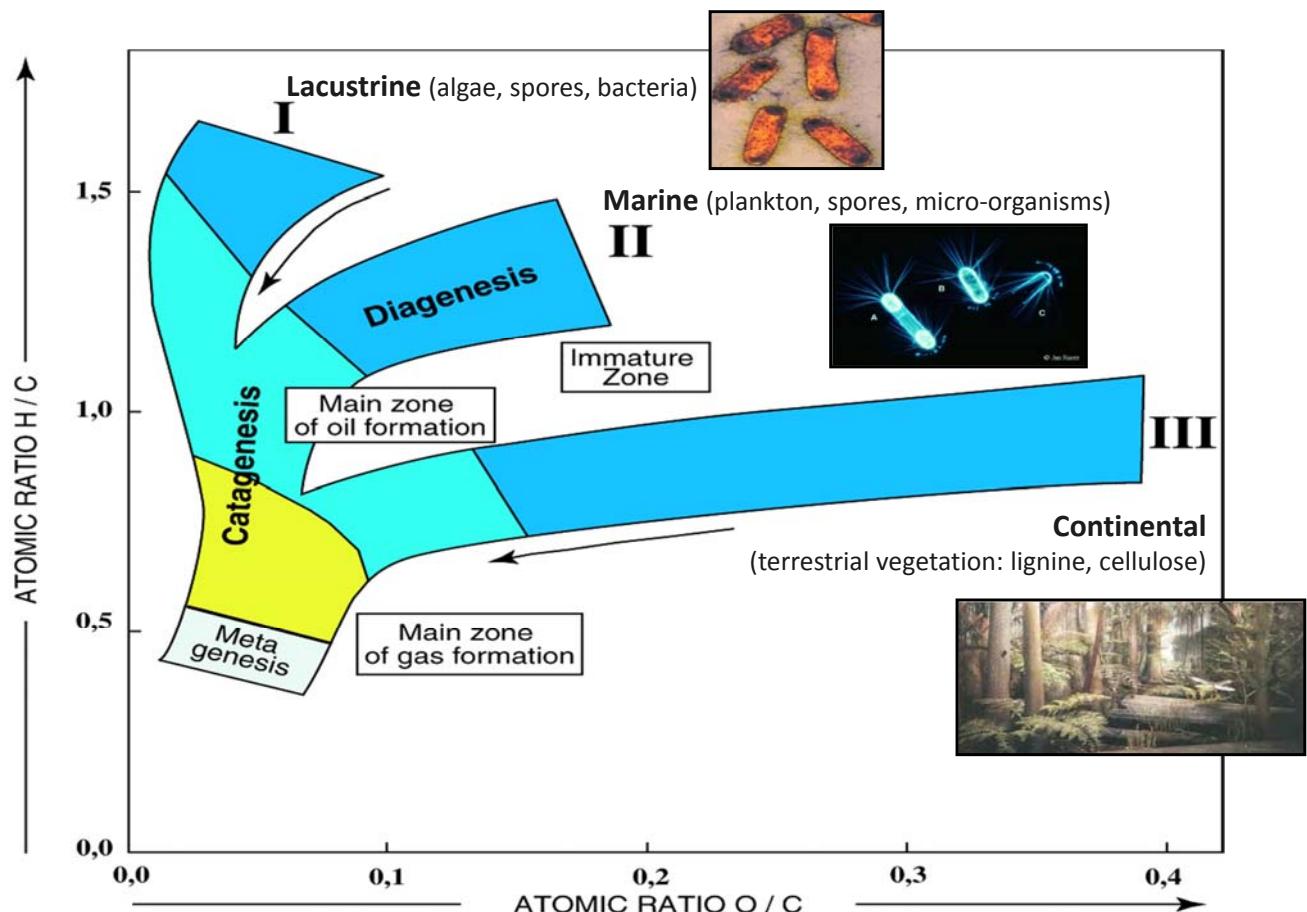
Thermal degradation
→ “strong” C-C bonds breaking (cracking)
Gas window

$> 200^{\circ}\text{C}$: Metamorphism



Source rock maturation = chemical transformation mainly due to temperature increase during burial

Origin of kerogen: Van Krevelen diagram



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Origin of hydrocarbons: summary



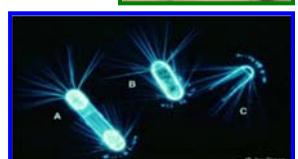
► Three origins of OM > three different types of Kerogen

- Type I: lacustrine (lake algae, bacteria,...)
- Type II: marine (zoo- & phyto-plankton, micro-organisms,...)
- Type III: continental (terrestrial vegetation, forests, bacteria...)



► Three steps of OM transformation within source rocks

- Diagenesis (burial, lithification)
- Catagenesis (Kerogen transformation) $\rightarrow \sim 60^\circ\text{C}$...
- Metagenesis (cooking, cracking) $\rightarrow \sim 120^\circ\text{C}$...



► Three factors for OM maturation

- Temperature (sediments cooking, anoxic conditions, bacterial activity)
- Pressure (sediment compaction, water expulsion)
- Time (molecular evolution, new atomic combinations – compensates for low T°)



- ▶ Structure of hydrocarbons
- ▶ Origin and generation
- ▶ The Petroleum Trilogy
- ▶ Migration
- ▶ Traps

The Petroleum Trilogy

1. Source rocks

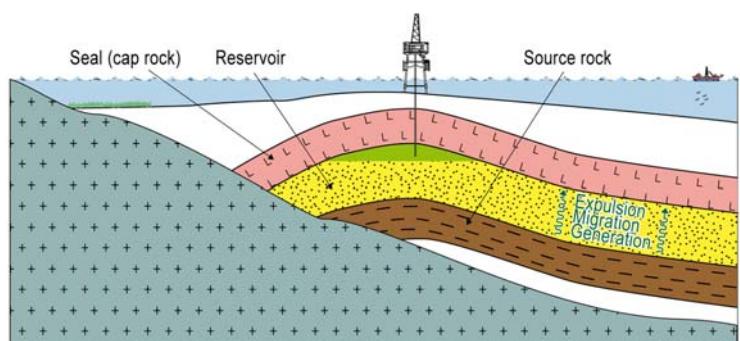
- Hydrocarbons were generated from these rocks.
- Usually, they are impermeable (e.g. shales).
- They are rich in organic material.
- Thin particles are mixed with organic matter.

2. Reservoir rocks

- Hydrocarbons were accumulated in these rocks during geological times.
- They are porous and permeable (e.g. carbonates or sandstones).
- Porosity, permeability and water saturation characterize them.

3. Seal rocks

- These rocks prevent hydrocarbons to migrate.
- They are impermeable (e.g. shales, evaporites).
- Thickness is a secondary parameters compared with large, continuous lateral extension.



1 - Source rocks

► Definition

- Sedimentary rock rich in O.M. (ranging from 1 to 10%)
- Mature enough to generate hydrocarbons (i.e. above 60°C)

► Deposition

- Fine, muddy sediments deposited in quiet, low-energy, anoxic environments (lacustrine, lagoonal, open marine)
 - Lakes (algae, plankton)
 - Deltas (distal shaly facies)
 - Carbonate shelves (high organic production)



► Lithology

- Very fine-grained rock (shales, mudstones, marls)
- Interbedded laminations due to seasons
- (sediment/O.M. > heterogeneity)
- Low permeability → internal over-pressure
→ under-compaction



► Process

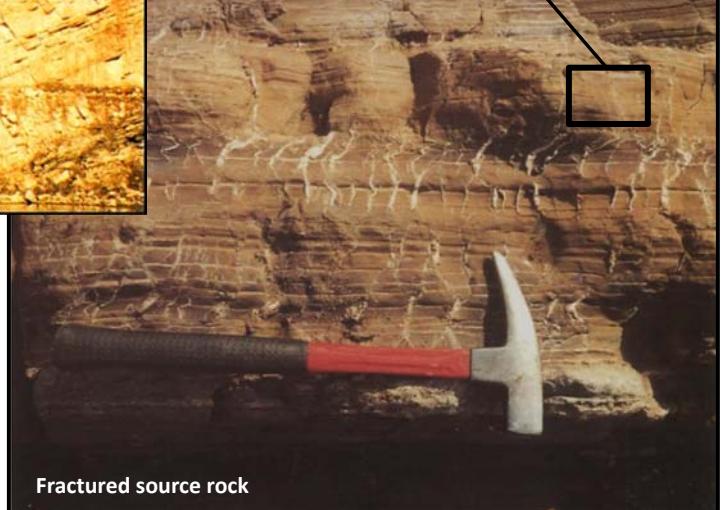
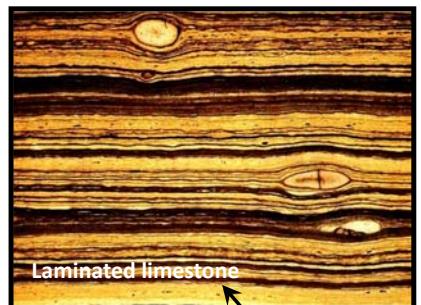
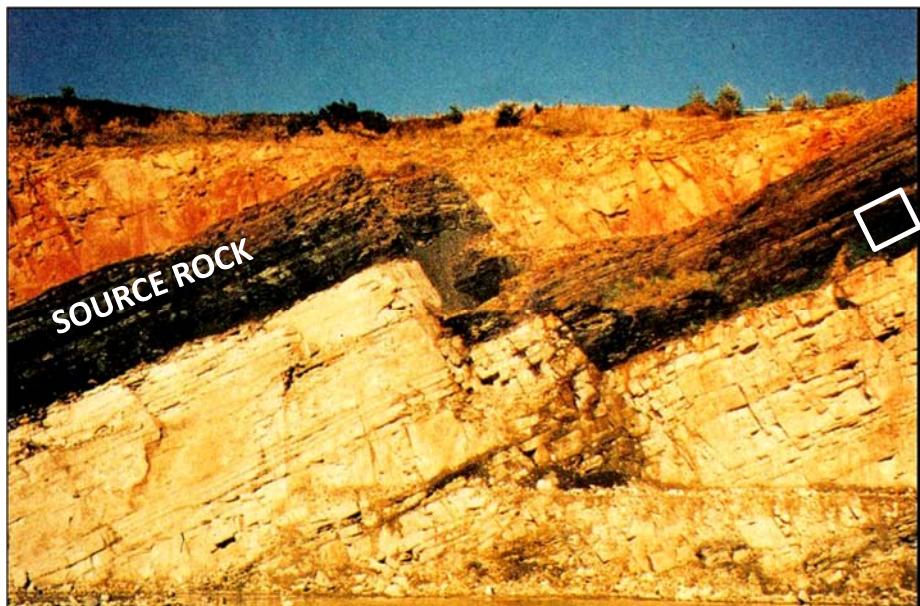
- Preservation of organic matter
- Generation of hydrocarbons
- Expulsion of hydrocarbons

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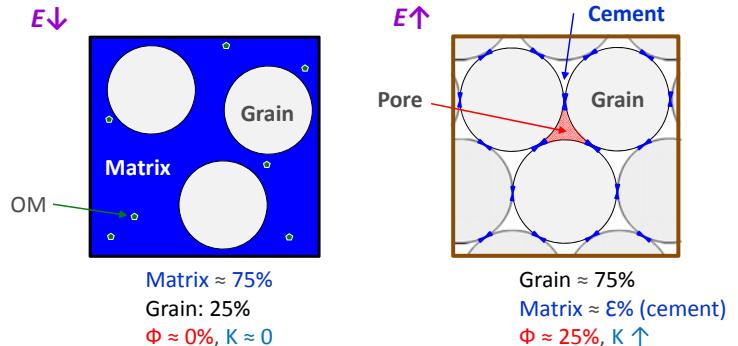
Examples of source rock outcrops



2 - Reservoir rocks

Reservoir rocks are porous and permeable (e.g. carbonates, sandstones). Hydrocarbons were accumulated in reservoirs throughout geological time. Porosity, permeability and water saturation are the parameters that characterize them.

- Porosity: Φ *The*
- Permeability: K *Reservoir*
- Saturation: S *Trilogy*



Two main types of reservoir rocks:

- Siliciclastic rocks (e.g.: sandstone)
Produced mainly by physical processes (erosion, weathering). Source outside depositional area.
- Carbonate rocks (e.g.: limestone, dolomite)
Produced mainly by chemical and bio-chemical processes, inside depositional area.

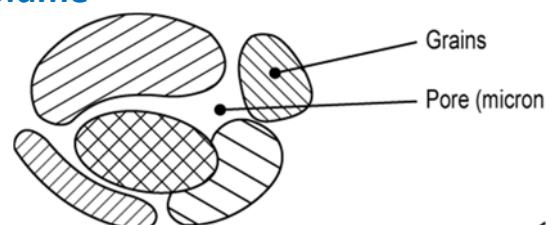
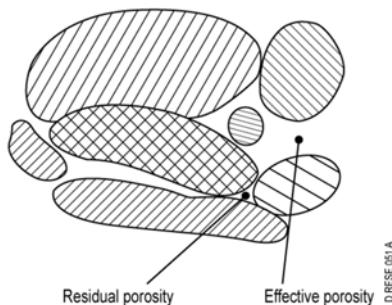
Porosity Φ

Porosity is defined as the ratio between the pore-space volume and the total volume of a rock sample (in %)

$$\text{Porosity} = \frac{\text{Volume of voids}}{\text{Total rock volume}} \times 100$$

In reservoir rocks, porosity usually ranges between 10% et 35 %.

- Primary porosity:
Original intergranular porosity in sediment
- Secondary porosity:
Due to diagenesis and fractures during and after lithification



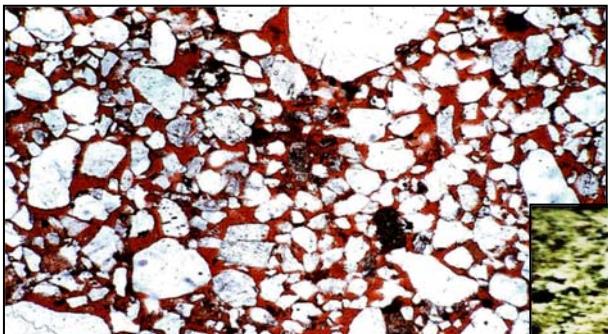
Only interconnecting voids are of any interest:
effective porosity
Non-connected voids define **residual porosity**

Porosity values are measured on cores and extracted from logs

Porosity examples

Thin sections

Sandstone



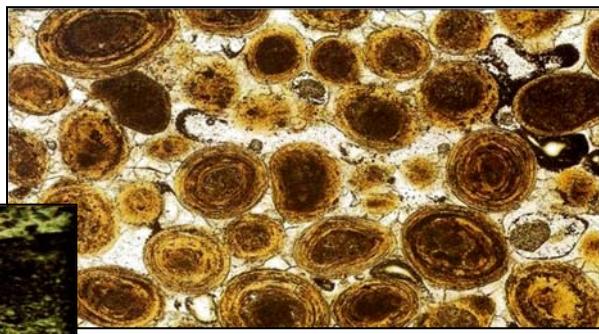
Porosity in red

Sandstone with shells



Porosity in pink

Oolithic limestone



Porosity in yellow

Limestone with shells



Porosity in yellow

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Permeability K

Permeability measures the ability of a rock to allow the displacement of fluids located inside the rock's porous network.

Commonly symbolized as **K**, in milliDarcy (mD), it is the **key parameter to produce a reservoir**.

Darcy's law

$$Q / A = (K / \mu) . (\Delta P / \Delta L)$$

Q : flow rate in cm^3/sec

A : through surface , in cm^2

K : permeability in Darcy

μ : fluid viscosity, in centipoise

P : pressure, in atm

K / μ : mobility

L : length, in cm

$1 \text{ Darcy} = 0,9869 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2$

High permeability values range between 10 mD and 1000 mD - or more for fractured reservoirs.

Within a rock, **permeability varies with direction** (horizontal \neq vertical)

Permeability data come from core measurements and well tests

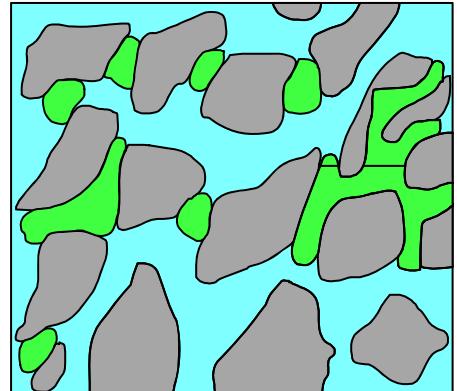
Saturation S

In reservoir studies, it is essential to know the type of fluid present in the pores. Saturation for a given fluid is defined by the ratio of fluid volume vs pores volume, in %.

$$\text{Saturation} = \frac{\text{Fluid volume}}{\text{Pore volume}}$$

Fluids are mainly water but can also be oil and/or gas:

- Water saturation: S_w
- Oil saturation: S_o
- Gas saturation: S_g



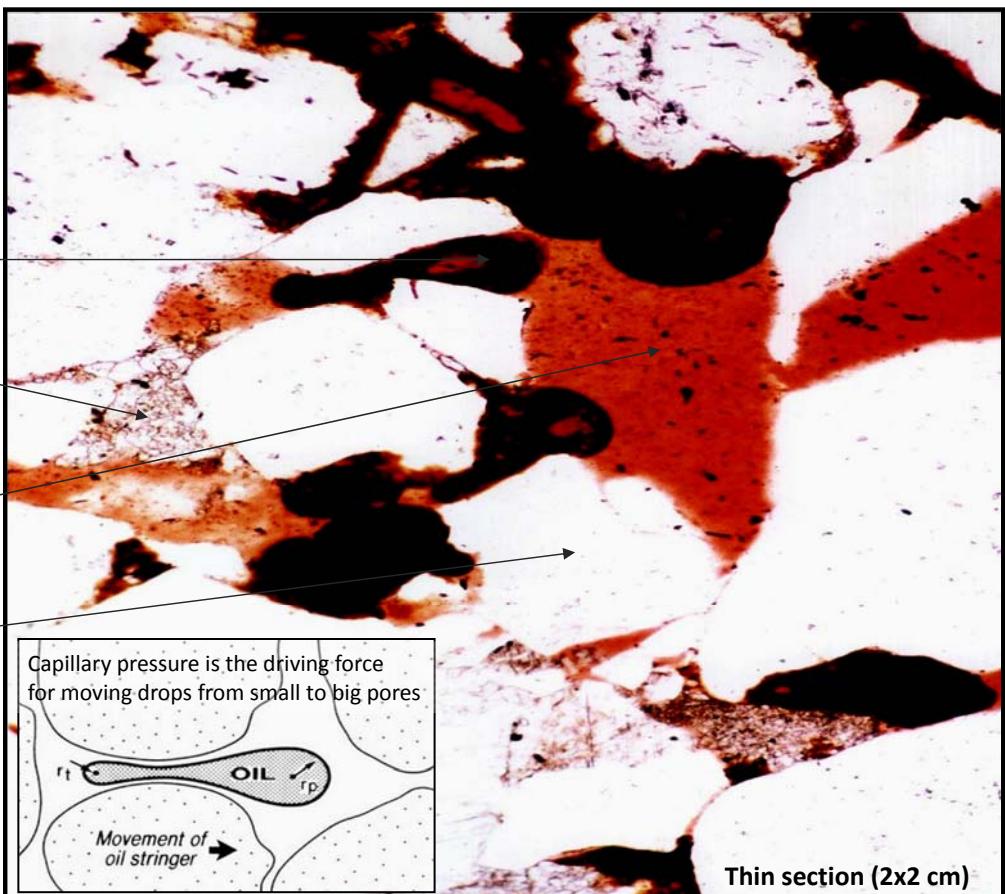
Thin section showing oil saturation

Saturation data come from well log interpretation and core analysis

Example of porosity and saturation

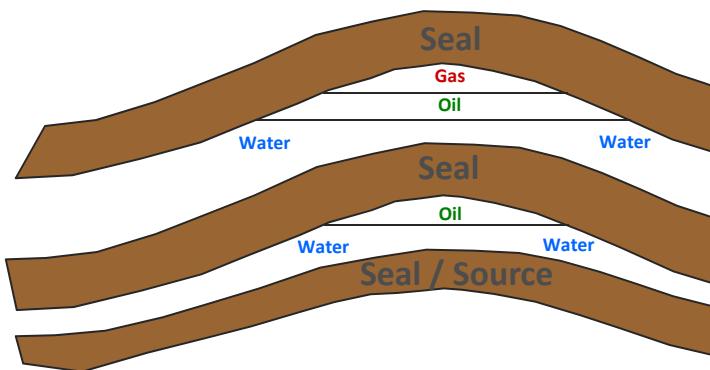
Oil-impregnated sand reservoir

Oil
Clay
Water (red resin)
Grain (quartz)



3 - Seal rocks / Cap rocks

- ▶ Non-permeable rocks, preventing hydrocarbons to further migrate
- ▶ Plastic rocks that can be deformed under stress/strain but not fractured
- ▶ Continuous lateral extension is a more critical parameters than thickness
- ▶ Most common lithologies:
 - Shales
 - Saline rocks
 - Very compact sandstones or limestones (without porosity, i.e. “tight”)



The Petroleum Trilogy – Key points



	Source rock	Reservoir rock	Seal rock / Cap rock
Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Sedimentary rocks rich in OM, mature enough to generate hydrocarbons	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Porous and permeable rocks● Allow displacement and hydrocarbon accumulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Non-permeable rocks (prevent hydrocarbons from migration)● Plastic rocks (can be deformed but not fractured)
Lithology	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Very fine-grained rocks (shales, mudstones, marls,...) with interbedded laminations (sediment/OM)● Low permeability (internal over-pressure > under-compaction)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Clastic rocks (e.g. sandstone)● Carbonate rocks (e.g. limestone)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Shales or salt rocks (plastic rocks)● Very compact sandstones or limestones (without porosity, “tight”)
Specificity (process, parameters,...)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● OM production, deposition, preservation & maturation● HC generation, expulsion & migration	Petrophysical parameters: <ul style="list-style-type: none">● Porosity: Φ● Permeability: K● Saturation: S	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Lateral extension and layer continuity are more important than thickness

- ▶ Structure of hydrocarbons
- ▶ Origin and generation
- ▶ The Petroleum Trilogy
- ▶ Migration
- ▶ Traps

Hydrocarbon migration

Types of migration

The word “migration” covers all types of displacements of hydrocarbons, from the source rock where they originated to the trap where they accumulate.

Primary migration

Expulsion of hydrocarbons from the source rock either towards a porous & permeable adjacent rock or via a permeable fault. This migration takes place over very short distances (a few cm) and is controlled by pressure (higher in source rock), temperature and expelled molecules diameter.

Secondary migration

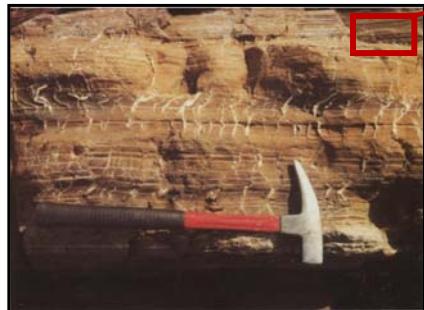
Displacement of hydrocarbons (after expulsion from the source-rock) over distances ranging from a few meters to several hundred of kilometers, until they are trapped.

This migration takes place inside a reservoir/carrier rock or along a non-sealing fault. Migration pathways are complex and specific to each basin. Migration can be lateral and/or vertical (both upward or downward).

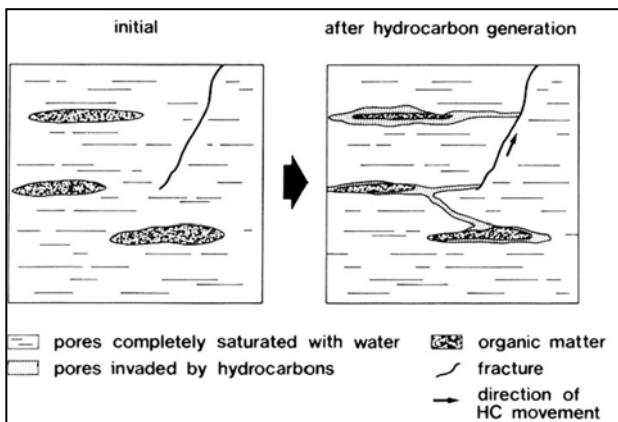
Dysmigration

Hydrocarbon displacement from a “leaking” reservoir to the surface (i.e. seepage).

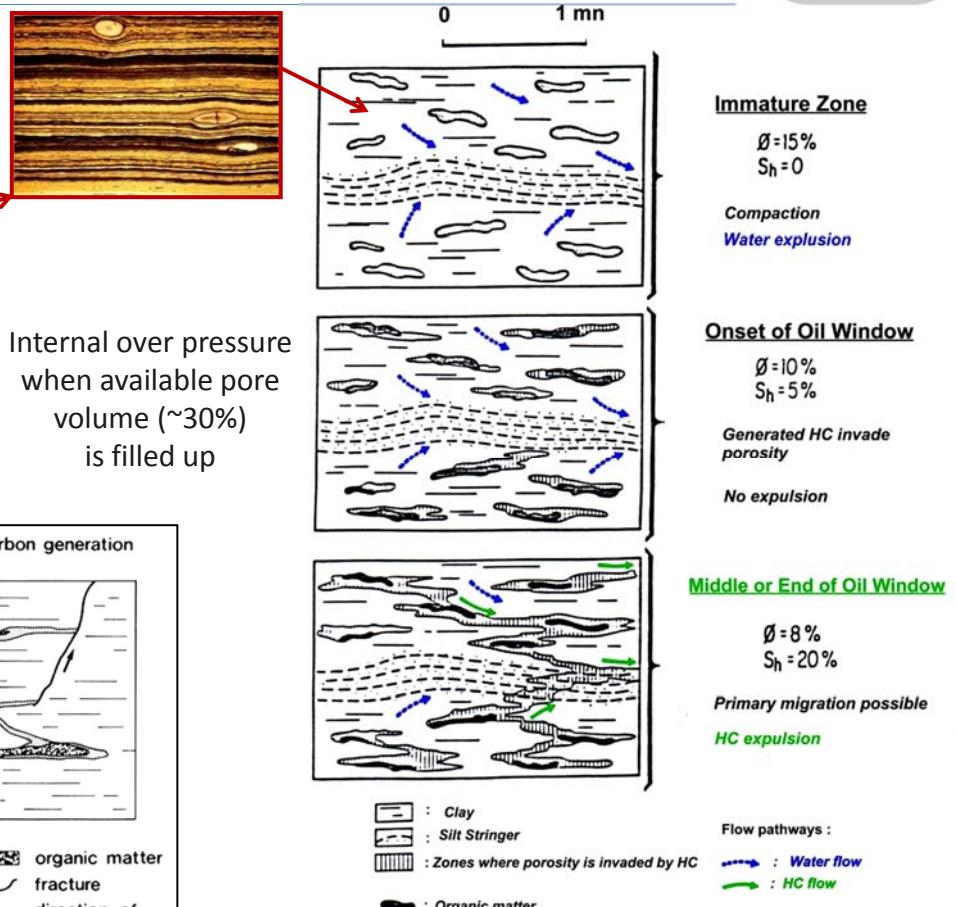
Expulsion / primary migration



Internal over pressure
when available pore
volume (~30%)
is filled up



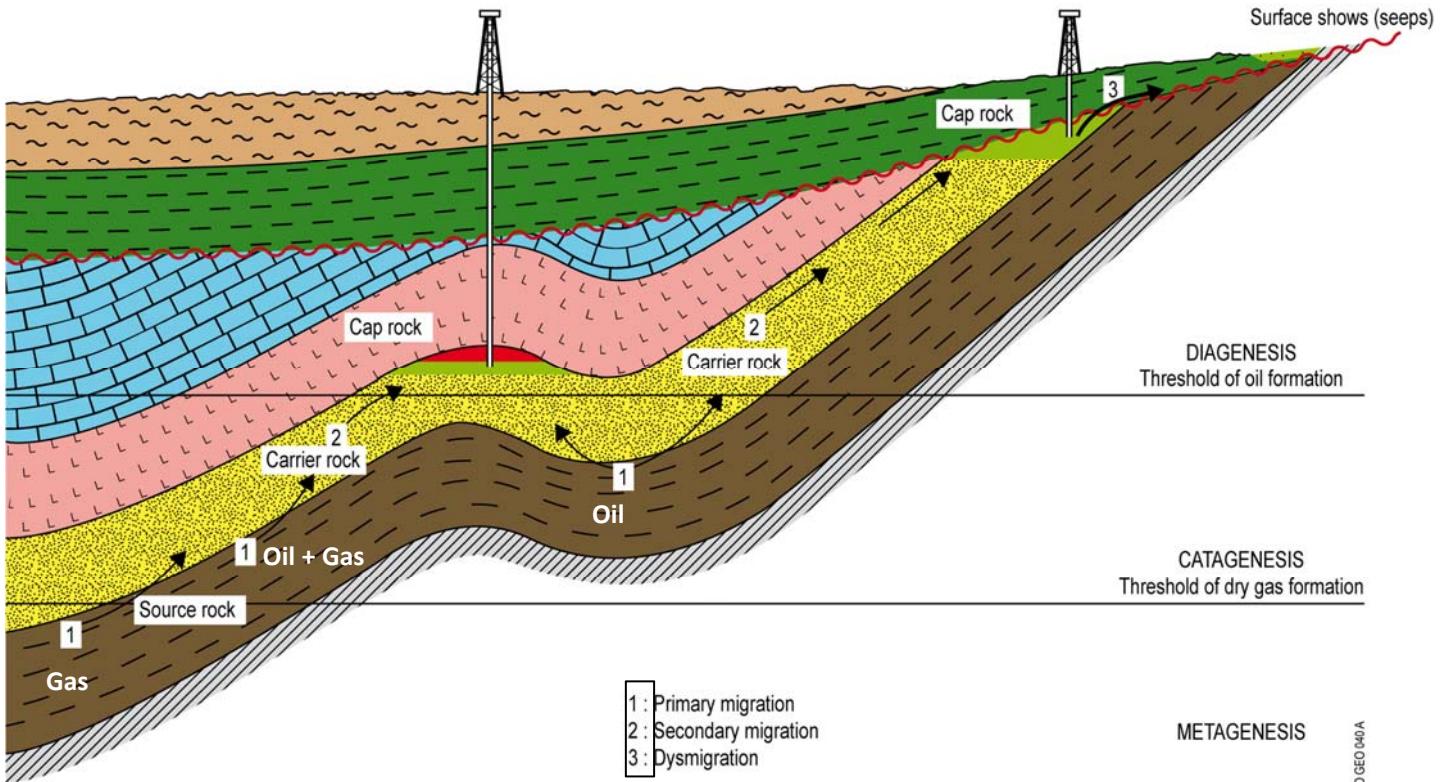
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Secondary migration

- ▶ Migration happens only in reservoir (carrier) rocks or along (non-sealing) faults
- ▶ Transportation occurs from high to low pressures:
 - Importance reservoir rock petrophysical characteristics
 - Porosity, permeability, capillary pressure
 - Influence of water drive (active aquifer)
 - Migration velocity
 - Accumulation distribution

Hydrocarbon migration



Migration happens only in reservoir rocks or along faults

Transport occurs in carrier rocks from high to low pressures

→ importance reservoir rock petrophysical characteristics (Φ , K, P_c)

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Dysmigration: seeps and surface shows



On land...

...and in the sea.



Gas bubbles in
the Gulf of Mexico

Hydrocarbon migration: summary

► Compaction of sediments (burial, diagenesis)

- Temperature increase - Porosity decrease - Fluid expulsion
- Transformation of O.M. into kerogen (thermal windows depths [oil, gas] depend on geothermal gradient in basin)

► Expulsion of hydrocarbons from source rock

- Volume of generated HC reaches critical threshold: creation of micro-fractures by internal over pressure
- Expulsion controlled by pressure gradient (from high to low pressure) between two adjacent rocks (with ≠ lithologies) or along a permeable fault
- Independent from relative position (ascending or descending)

► Migration of hydrocarbons within reservoir rocks

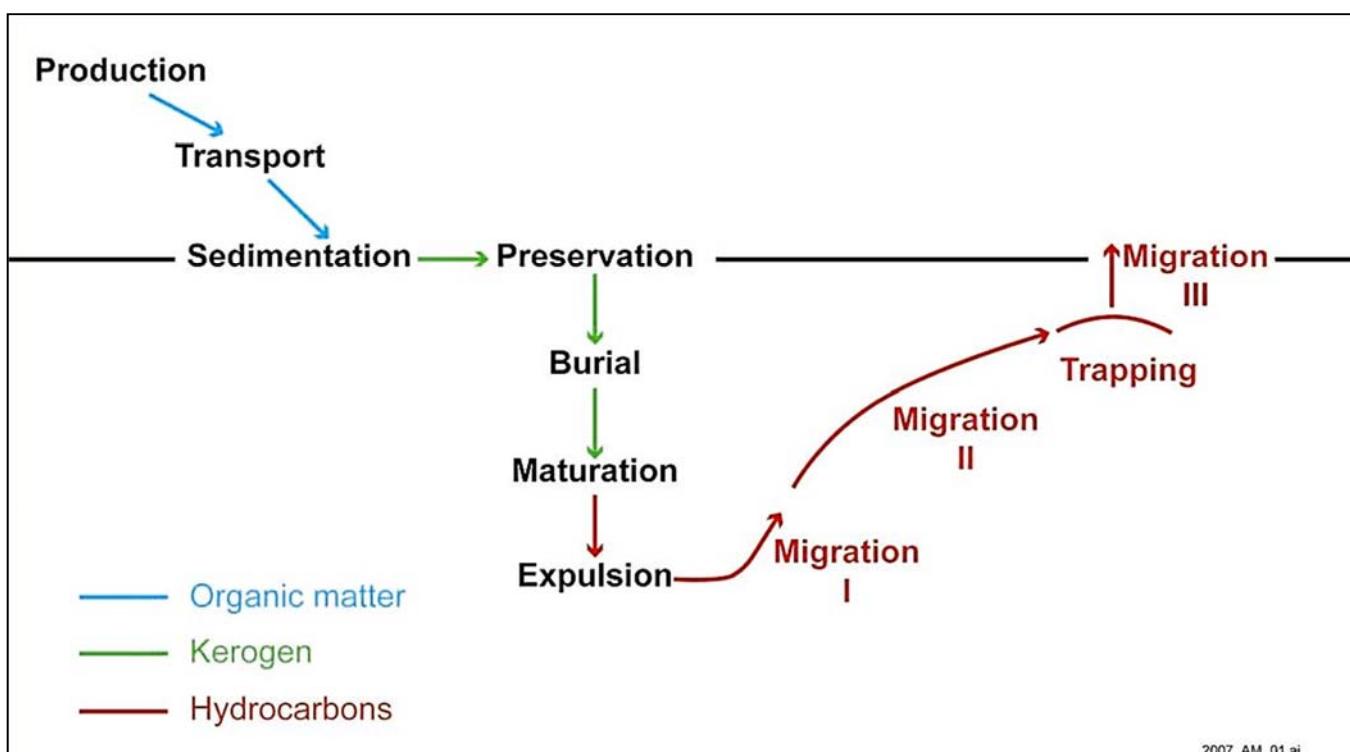
- Primary migration (expulsion)
- Secondary migration (towards accumulation) - Driven by high-to-low pressure gradient - Occurs only in reservoir formations (i.e. porous and permeable rocks) via pores, fractures or heterogeneities - Blocked by permeability barriers (seals > entrapment)
- Dysmigration (leak > seeps)

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Organic matter - Kerogen - Hydrocarbons – Key points



- ▶ Structure of hydrocarbons
- ▶ Origin and generation
- ▶ The Petroleum Trilogy
- ▶ Migration
- ▶ Traps

Main types of traps

Trap = geological anomaly

(either Tectonic/structural or Stratigraphic/lithological)

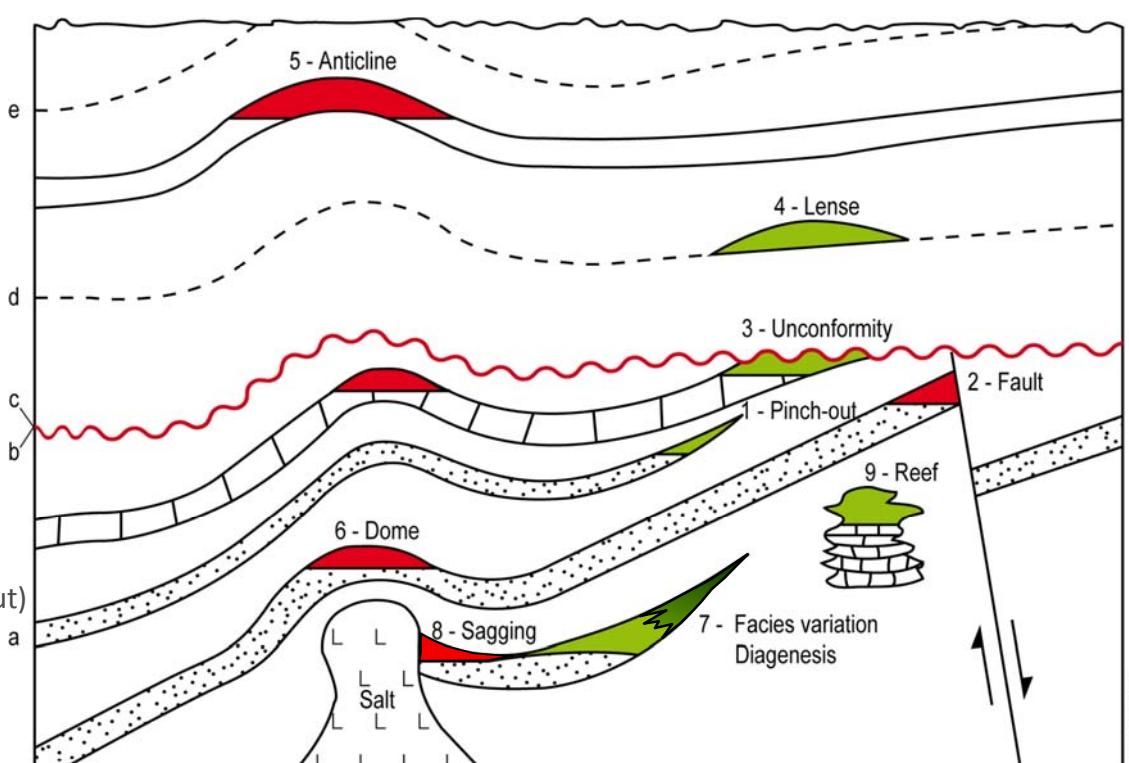
■ **Structural traps:**

- Anticline
- Fault
- Salt dome
- Salt sagging

■ **Stratigraphic traps:**

- Facies variation
- Diagenesis
- Reef
- Lense
- Wedge (pinch-out)

■ **Unconformity (mixed)**

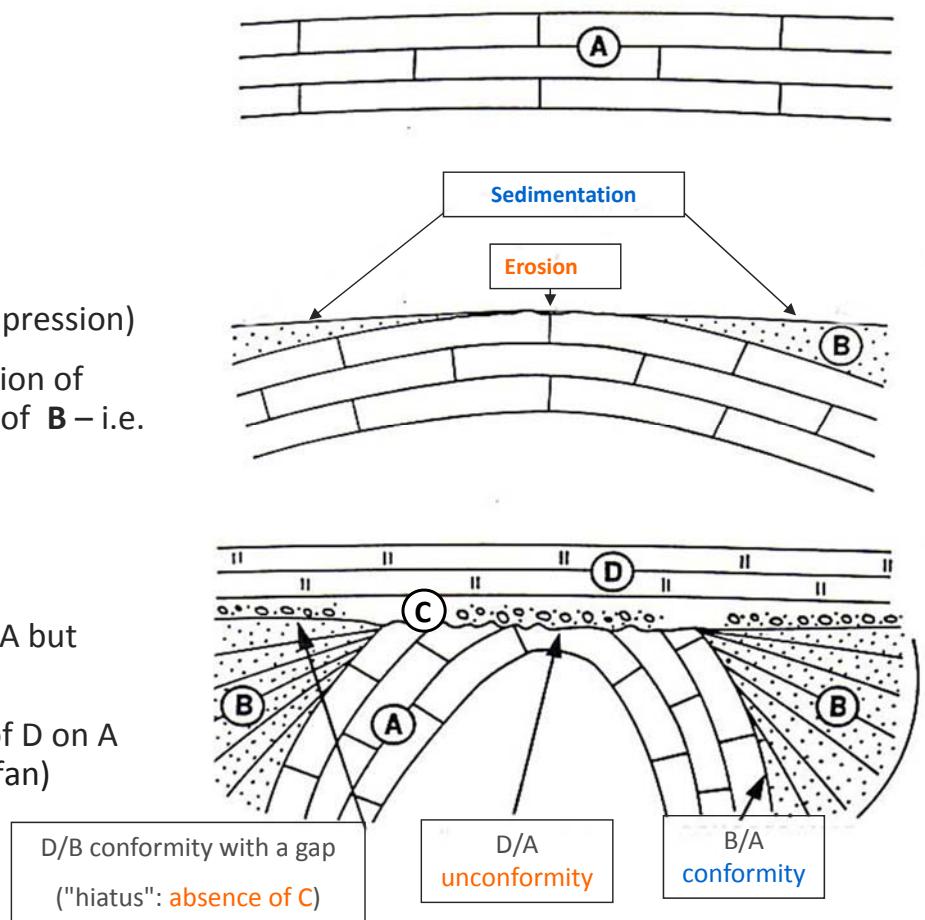


Unconformity

- ▶ Deposition of layer A

- ▶ Deformation of layer A (compression)
- ▶ Erosion of A and sedimentation of B ("syntectonic" deposition of B – i.e. during deformation)

- ▶ Final stage
 - C lies unconformably on A but conformably on B
 - progressive conformity of D on A via C and B (syntectonic fan)



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Example of trap analog: unconformity



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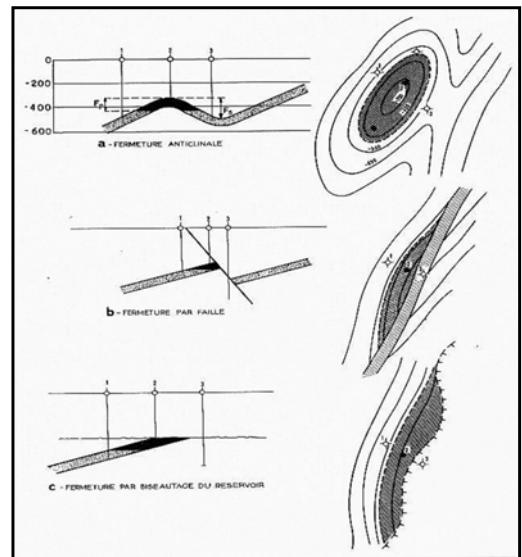
Hydrocarbon trap and entrapment

► Trap definition

- A **trap** always involves the **Reservoir/Seal couple**
- The **structural closure**: corresponds to the maximum extension of hydrocarbons filling (both vertical & horizontal boundaries – e.g. spill point, sealing fault, wedge,...)

► Entrapment process

- **Migration pathways** go from high to low pressures, within porous and permeable carriers rocks (i.e. potential reservoirs). Migration stops due to permeability barriers (sealing faults, diagenetic tightness,...).
- Cap rocks (seals) prevent hydrocarbon from further migration and leaking (dysmigration).
- An **adequate timing** between trap formation and hydrocarbon migration ("Play") is required



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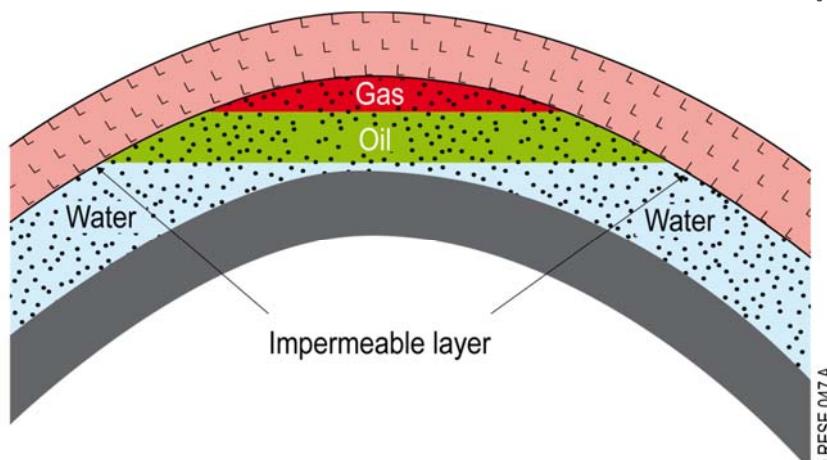
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Hydrocarbon traps: summary

A field is a closed zone made of a porous and permeable reservoir rock containing hydrocarbons (oil and/or gas) and residual water.

It is covered by a seal (cap-rock) thus forming a trap.

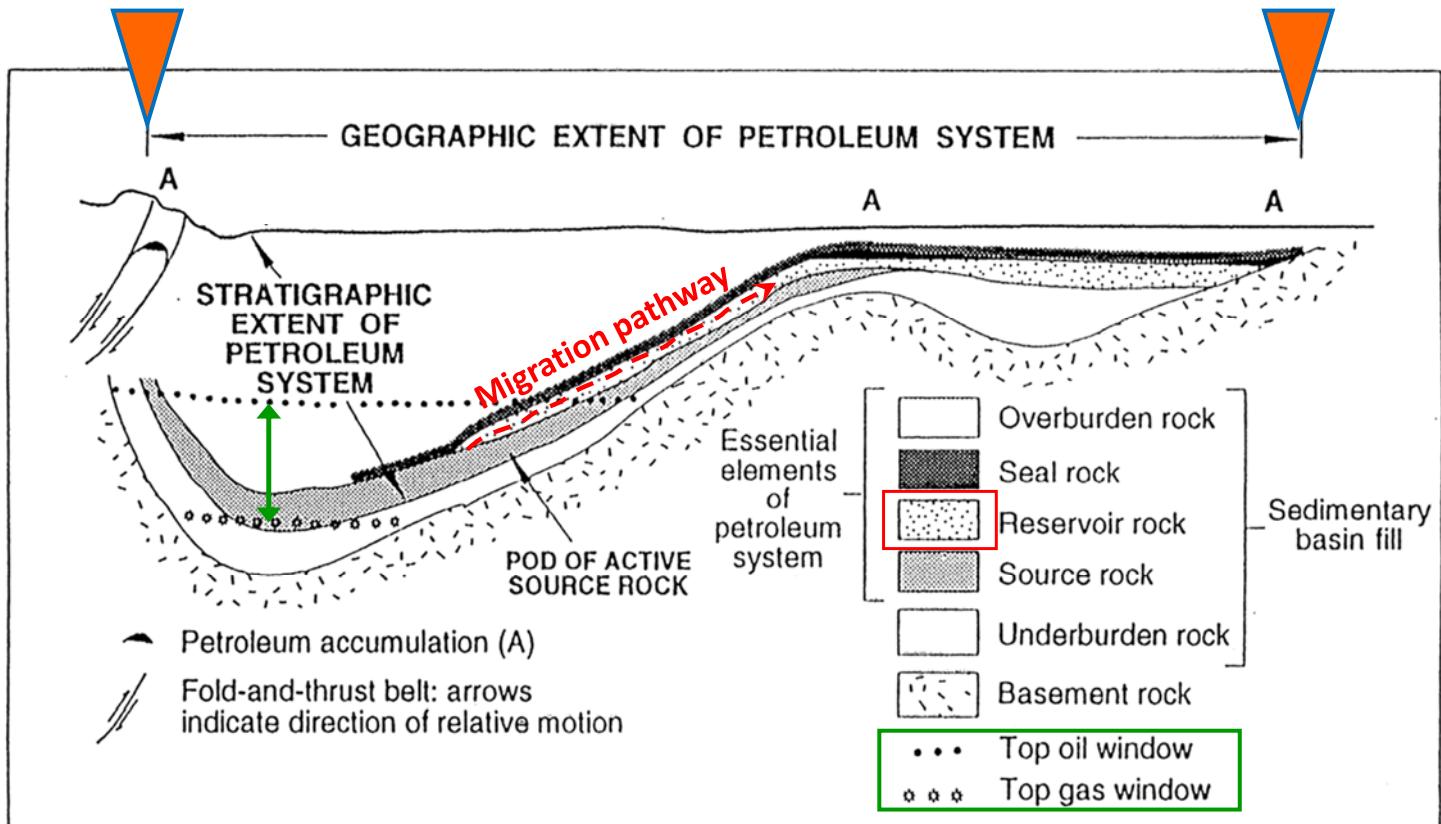
The hydrocarbon zone can be in communication with an aquifer.



The main objectives of reservoir studies are: development optimization, optimal well location and production forecast.

The life for a producing field varies from a few years to more than 20 or 30 years.

Cross-section of a petroleum system



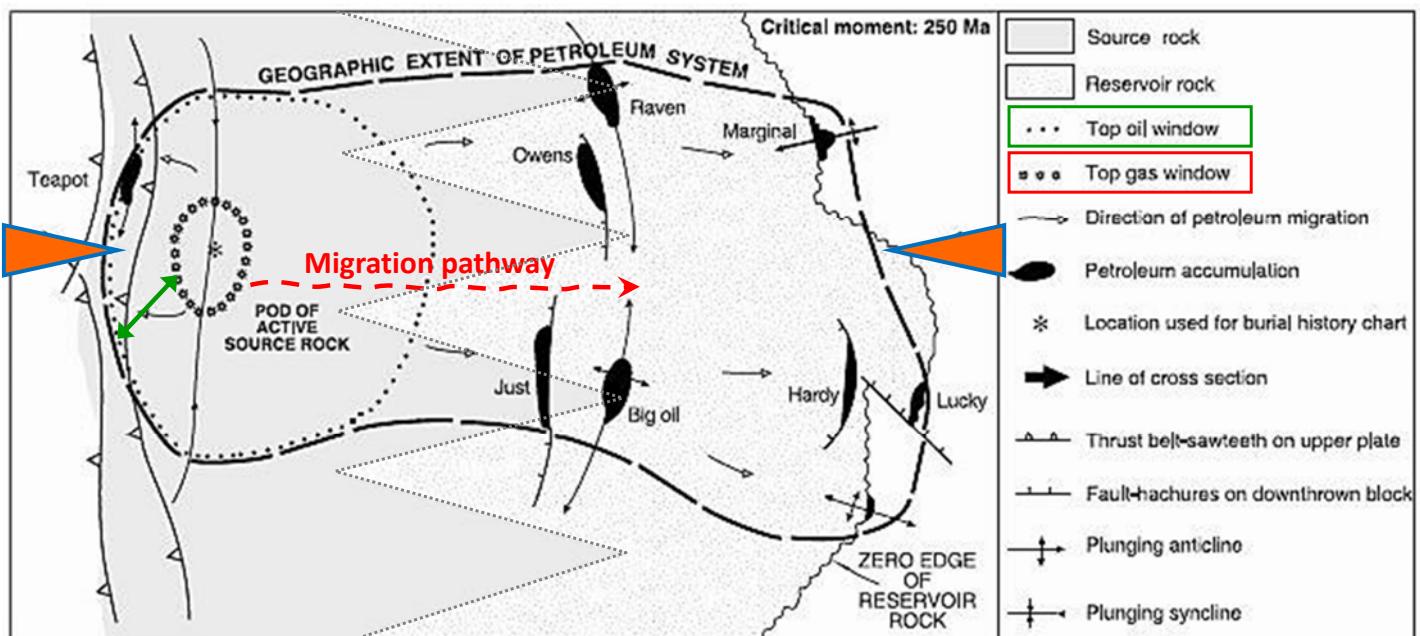
From Magoon&Beaumont – AAPG

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Map of a petroleum system



From Magoon&Beaumont – AAPG

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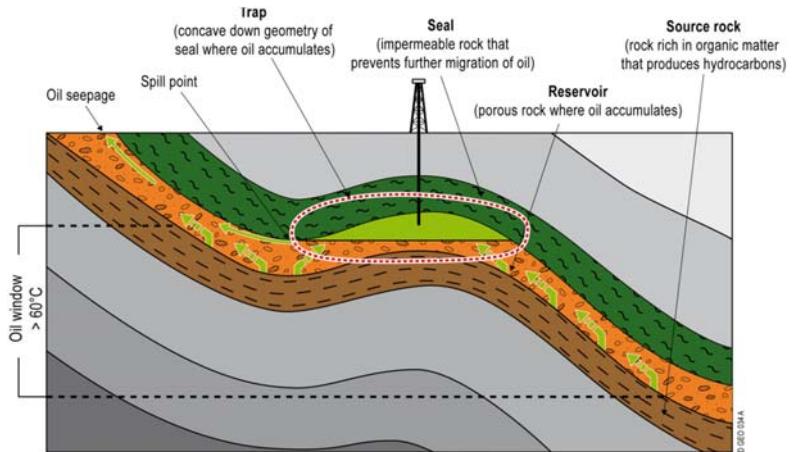
Conditions for hydrocarbon field formation

Necessary existence of:

- ▶ one (or more) mature source rock,
- ▶ one (or more) reservoir rock,
- ▶ one seal rock,
- ▶ a phase of migration (and pathways),
- ▶ one (or several) traps,

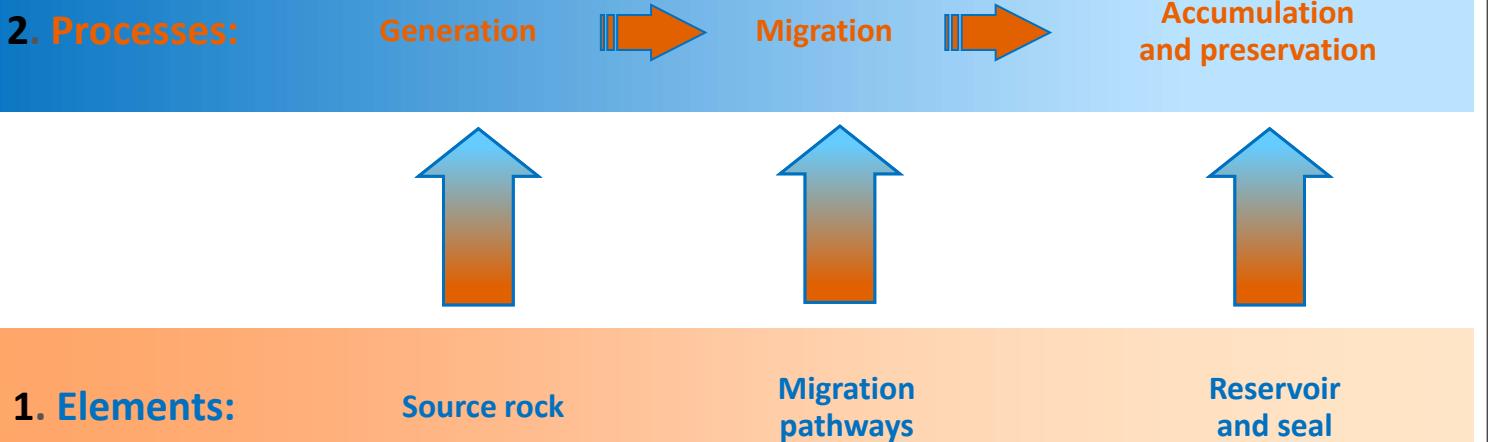
...and:

- an adequate timing between trap formation, hydrocarbon generation and migration
- sufficient quantities of generated hydrocarbons to feed the trap
- preservation of trap integrity throughout geologic times

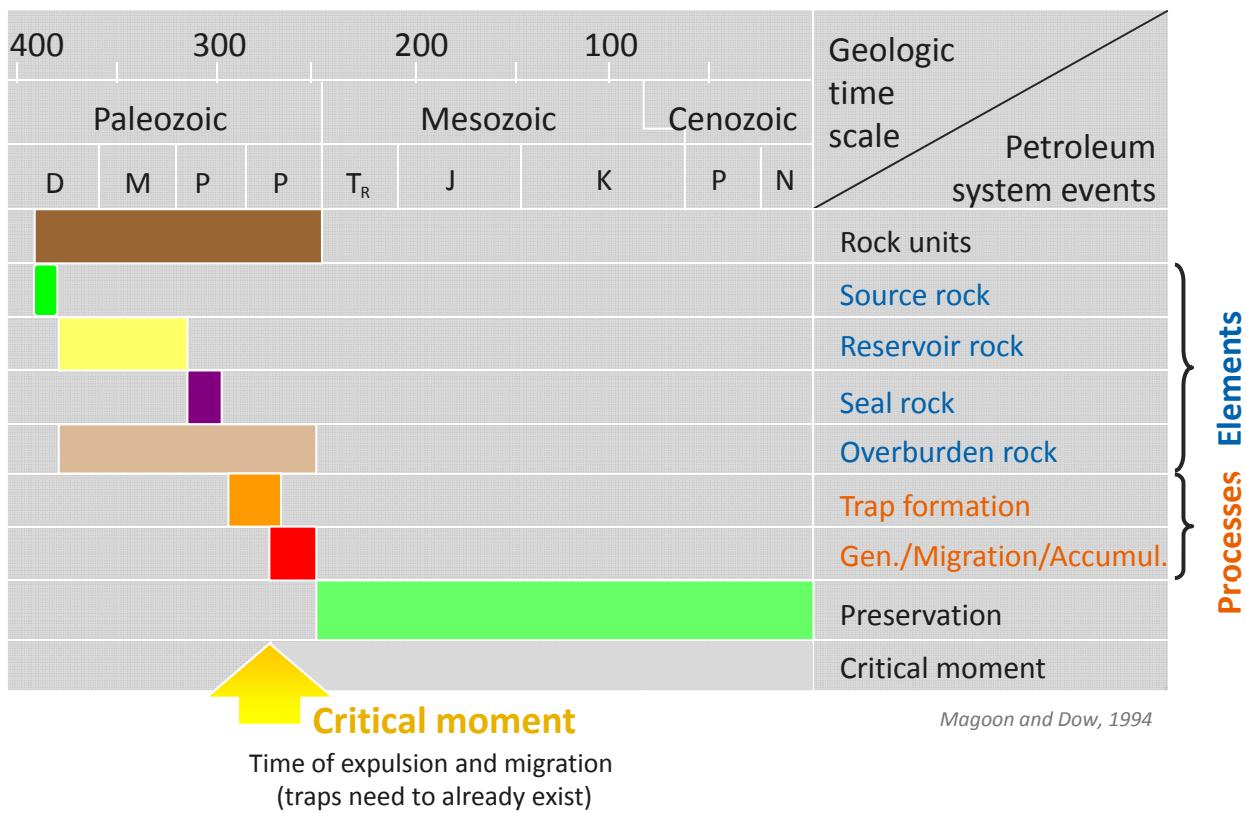


Timing between elements and processes

The trap must be available before/during migration



Petroleum system: Chart of events





Exploration tools & techniques

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Exploration tools & techniques

- ▶ **Exploration geology**
- ▶ **Petroleum geophysics**
- ▶ **Operations geology**

IV



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Preliminary geological survey

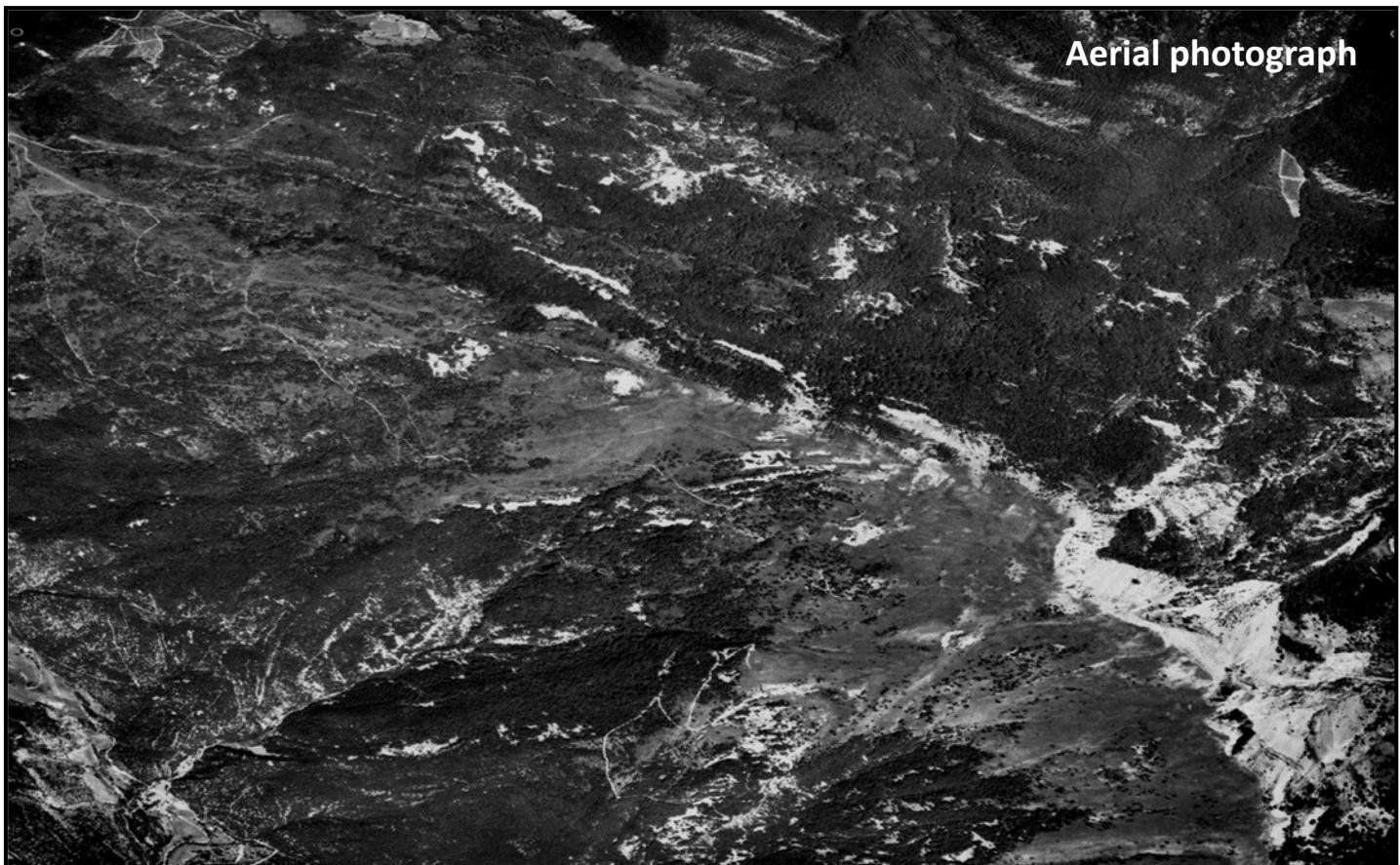


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Preliminary geological survey

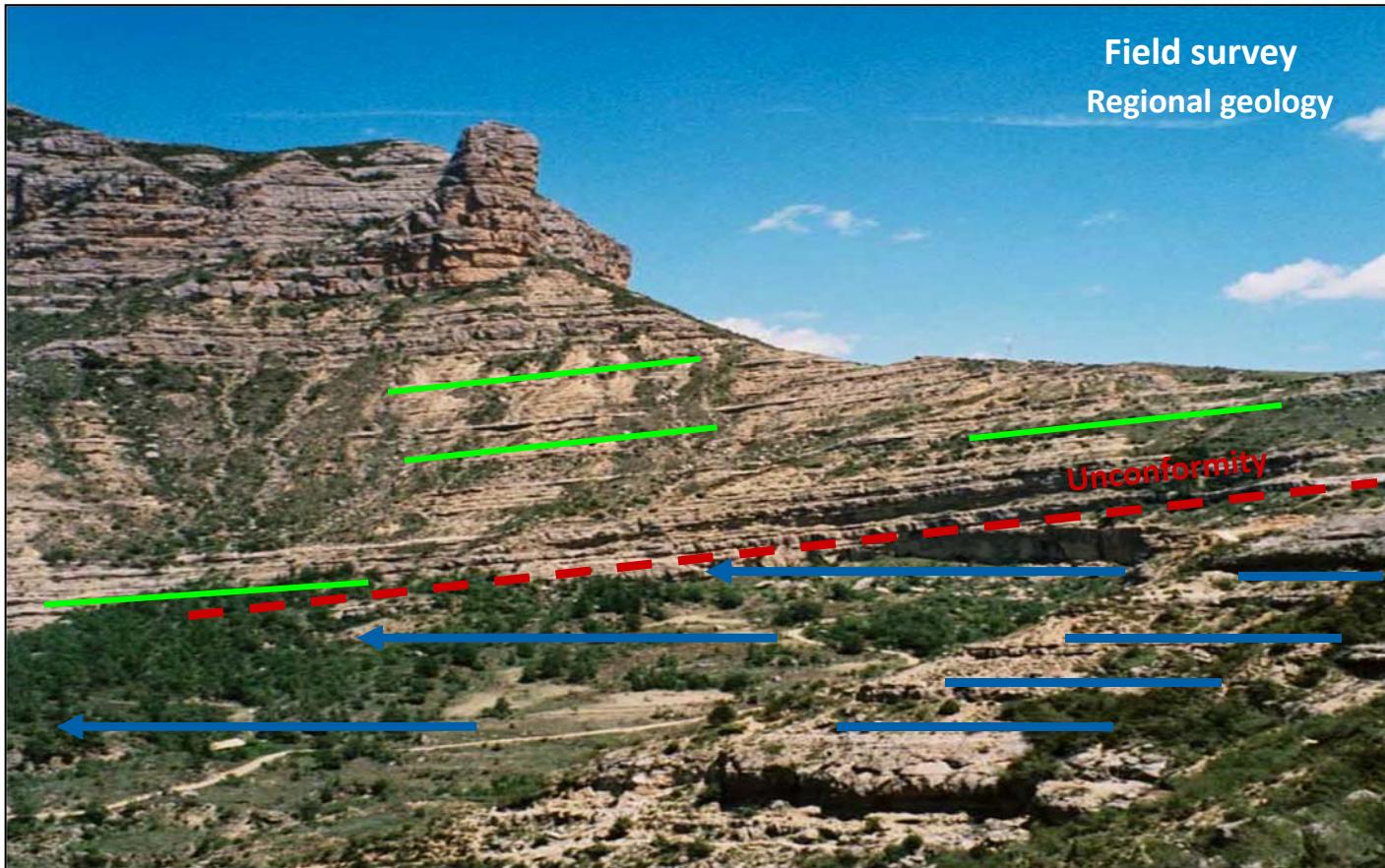


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Preliminary geological survey

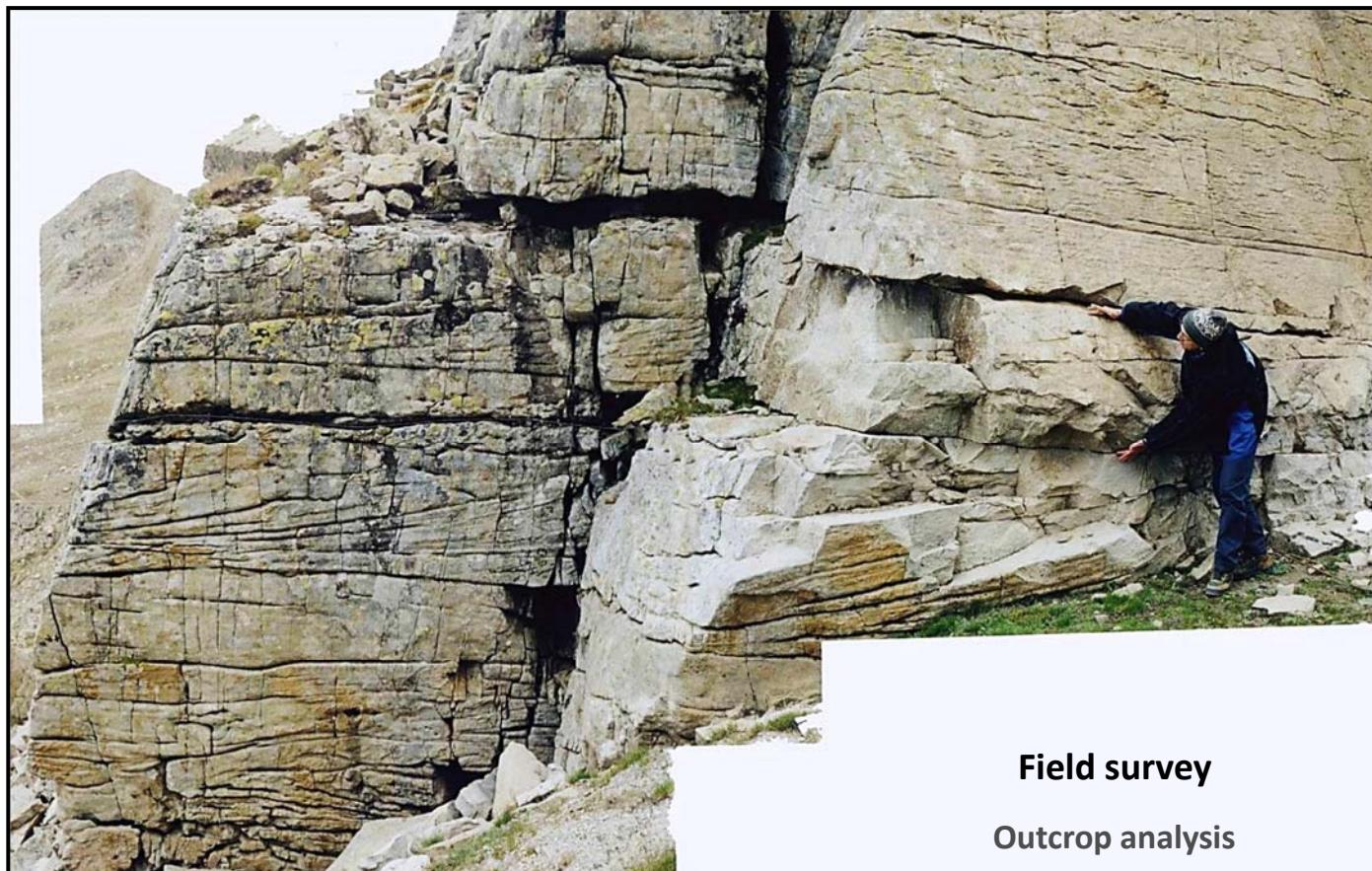


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Preliminary geological survey

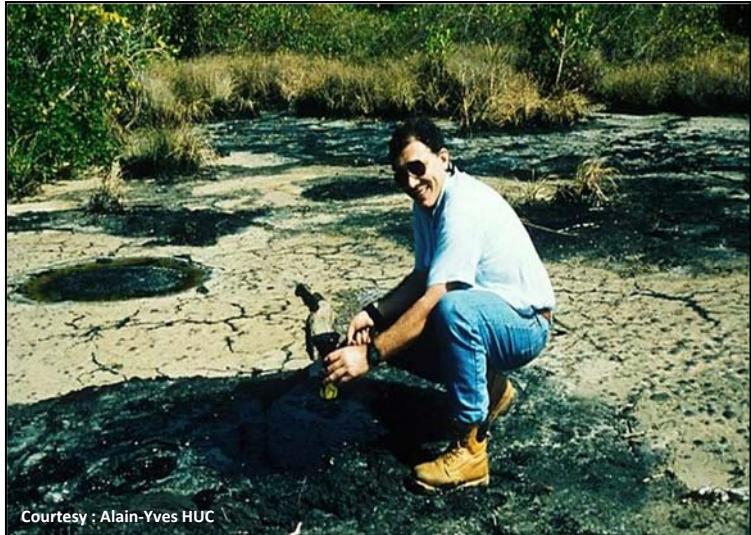


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Preliminary geological survey



Oil seeps

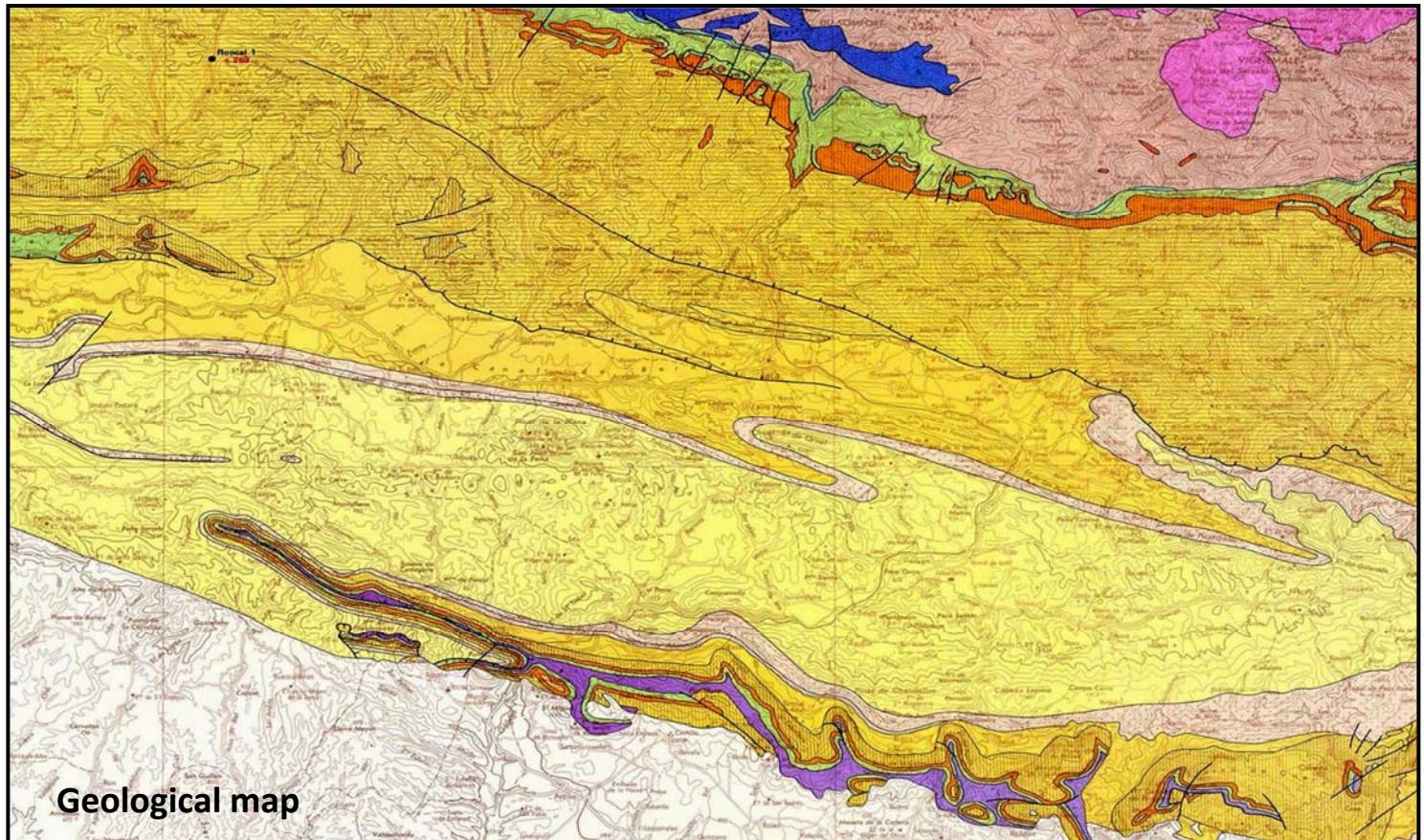
Evidence at surface

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Preliminary geological survey

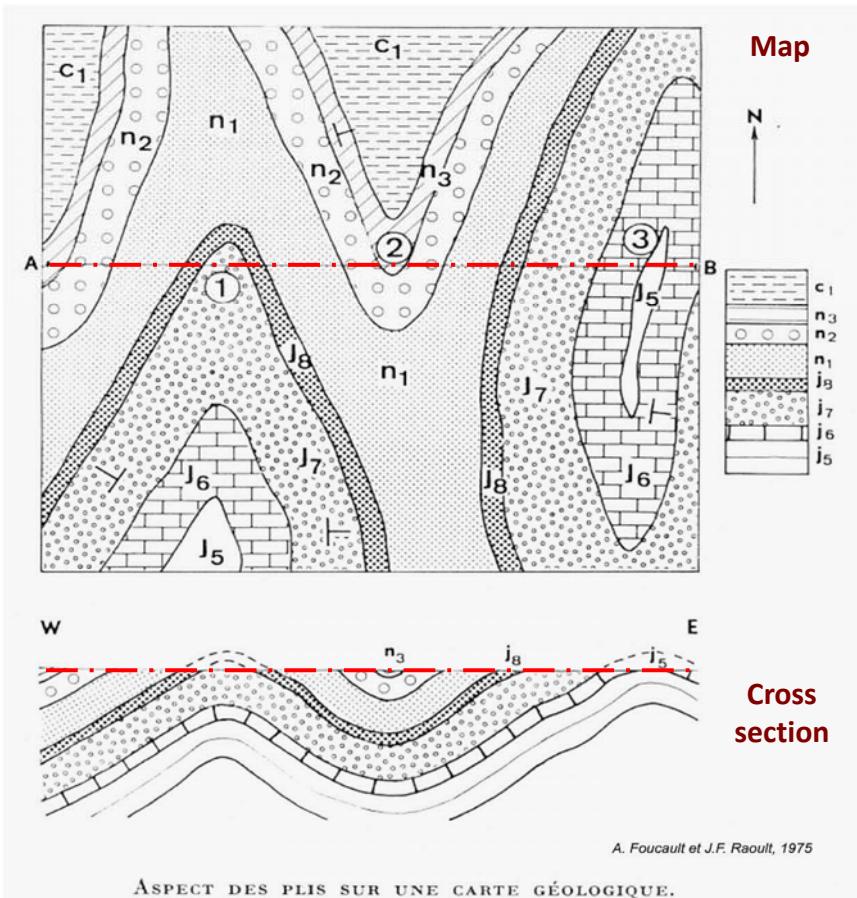


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Preliminary geological survey



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► Petroleum geophysics

- Introduction to petroleum geophysics
- Principles of seismic reflection
- Seismic acquisition
 - Land seismic
 - Marine seismic
- Seismic processing and imaging
- Seismic interpretation
- Seismic attributes and facies
- 4D seismic

Geophysics in E&P

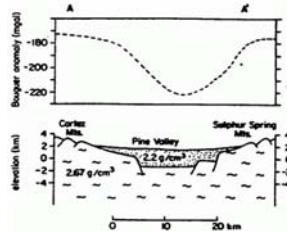
- The science of geophysics analyzes the Earth via **quantitative physical methods**
- Geophysical methods apprehend **physical rock parameters** - or rather: their **contrasts and variations** in space
- Geophysical methods analyze either **artificial signals or natural signals/phenomena**
- Geophysical methods can be applied on land or offshore, two or three dimensions, on ground surface or in wells
- Due to significant **depths of investigation**, the number of petroleum geophysical methods is **limited**, compared to other geophysical methods (e.g. applied to mining)
- The main geophysical method applied to petroleum is **seismic reflection**, mainly 3D seismic method (3 dimensions)
- Seismic reflection is often **used in combination** with seismic refraction or potential methods (e.g. gravimetry and magnetometry)

Natural methods	Artificial methods	Interpreted Features
Gravimetry		Salt, Shale, Granite
Magnetometry		Basement
	Reflection seismic	Sedimentary contrasts
	Refraction seismic	Basement
	Electric	Granitic basement
Magneto-Telluric		Shallow formations

Non-seismic methods

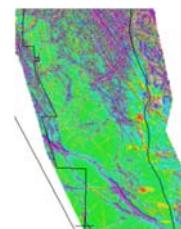
Three main types of tools:

- **Gravity/Gradiometry** = Density



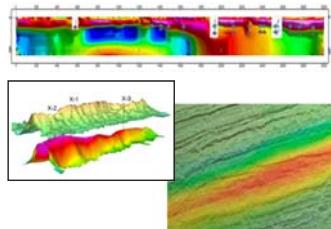
Basins, basement, closures

- **Magnetometry** = Susceptibility



Dykes, basement, de-risk intrusive

- **Electro-magnetism** = Resistivity



Near-surface and deep structure or fluids

► Petroleum geophysics

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Petroleum geophysics

General principle of seismic reflection

► Scanning subsurface

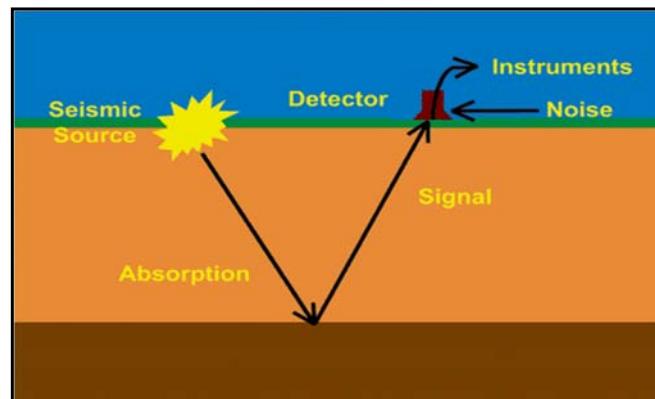
- Generation of an acoustic wave front
- Interaction with layers interfaces

► Interfaces

- Modification of wave propagation
- Reflection, Transmission, Refraction

► Part of the energy is reflected back to the surface and recorded at surface with a system of receivers

► Seismic reflection is a very powerful tool, with a significant depth of investigation (down to 15.000m) and potential high resolution (e.g. vertical accuracy, that varies from 20m to 2m)

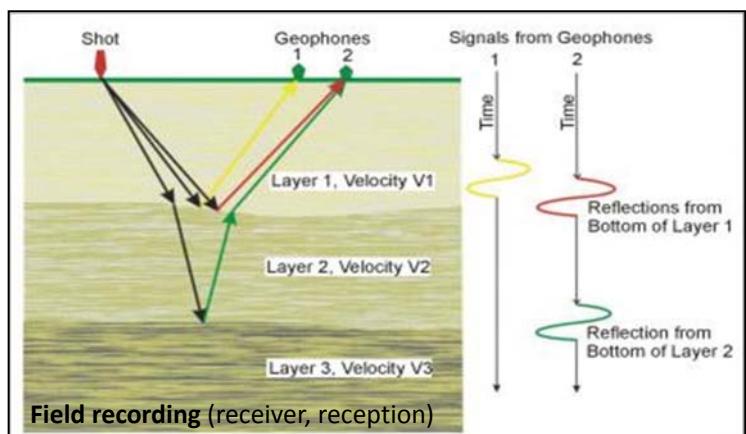
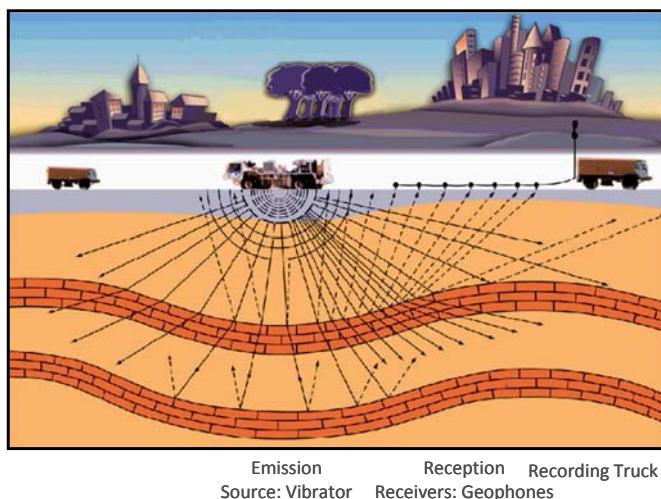


2D land reflection seismic principle

► Field set-up and geometry:

- Sources (land and marine)
- Receivers (geophones, hydrophones)
- Recording lab (truck, vessel)

► Improvement of Signal/Noise ratio (i.e. geological response vs interferences)



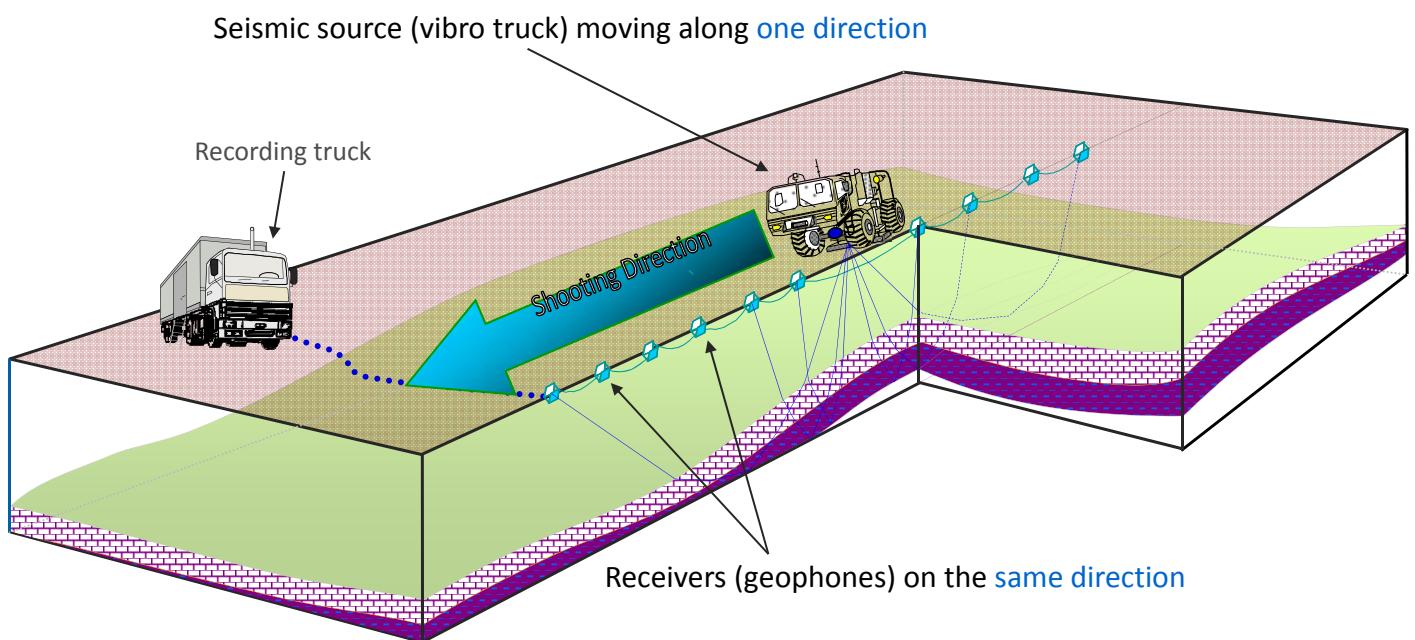
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Principle of 2D reflection seismic: land

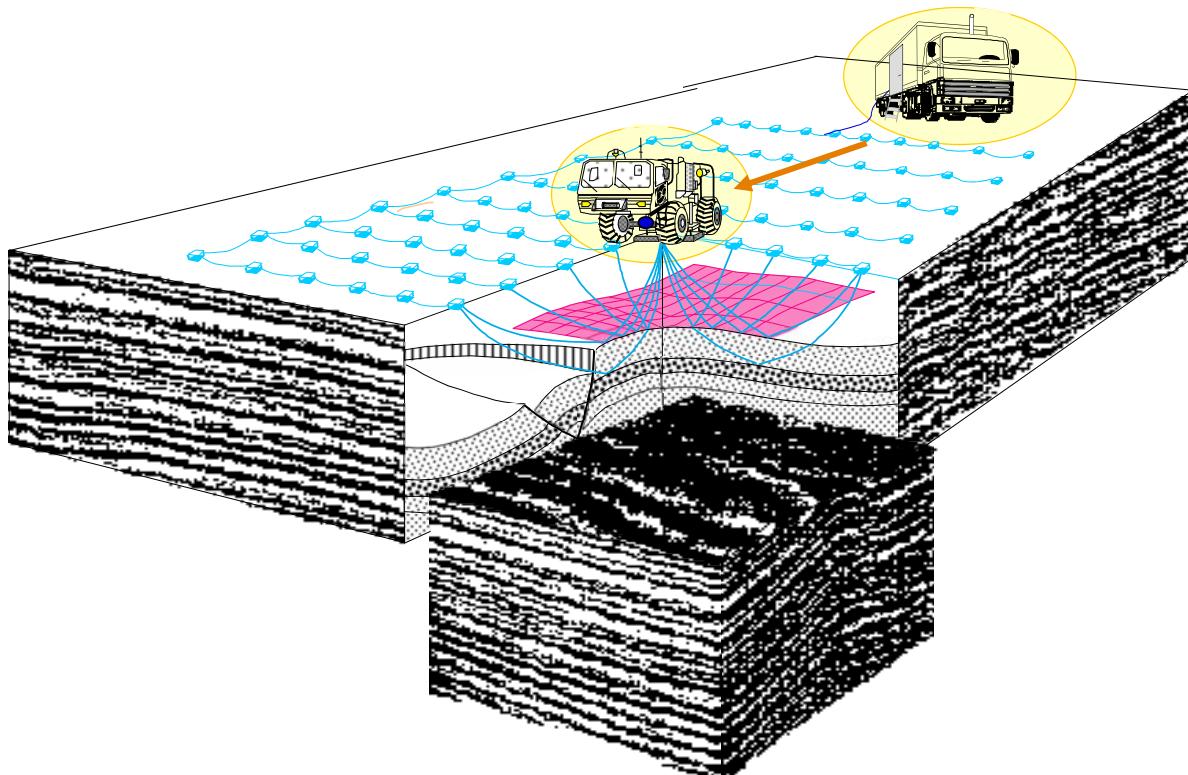
2D land acquisition



Shooting direction = Receiving direction = Seismic line or profile
(after processing = Seismic section)

Principle of 3D reflection seismic: land

3D land acquisition



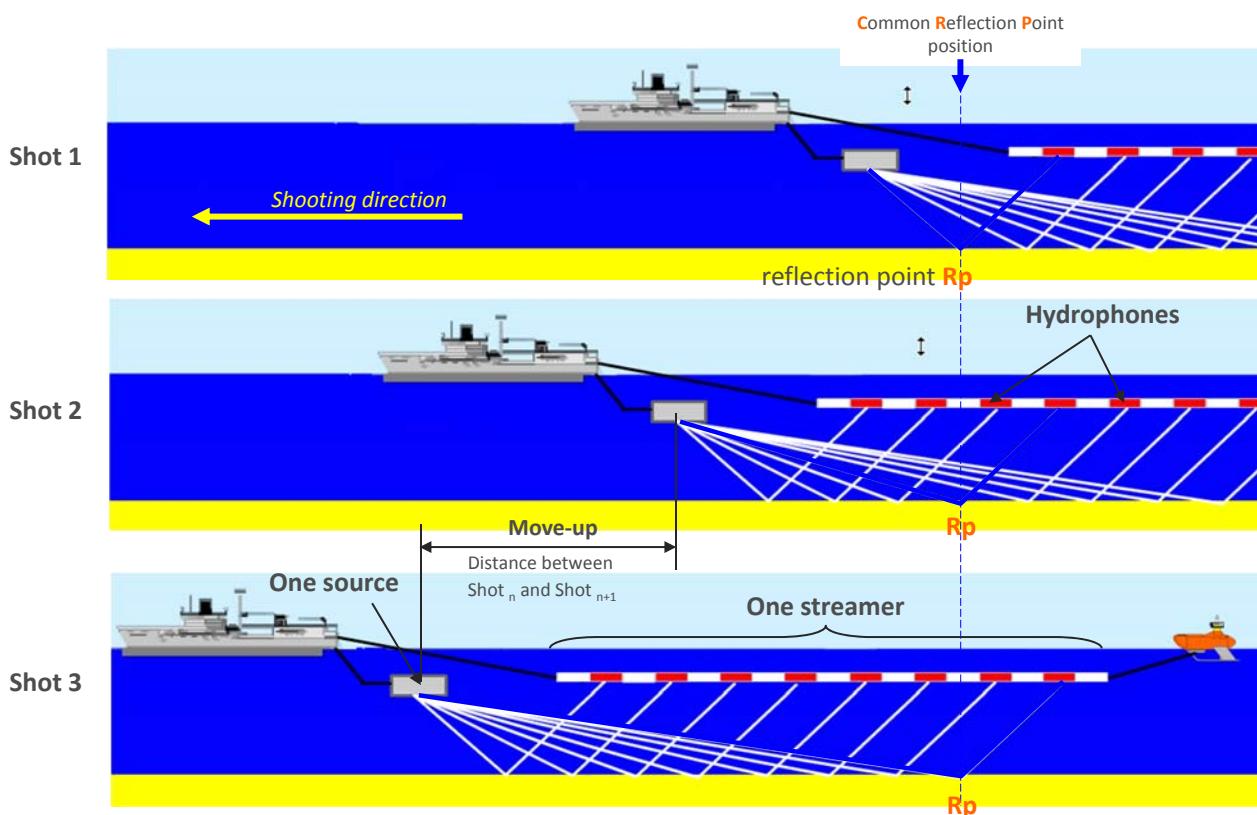
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Principle of 2D/3D reflection seismic: marine

2D/3D marine acquisition

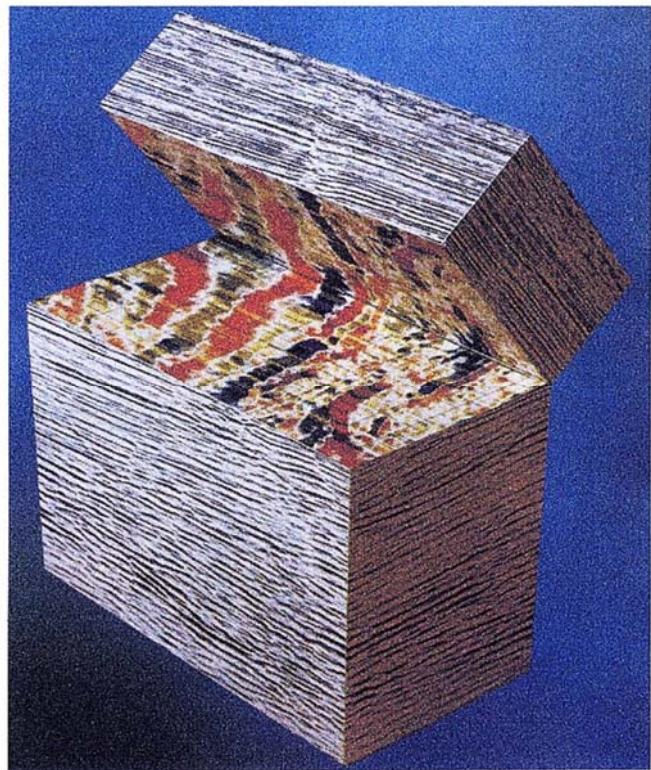
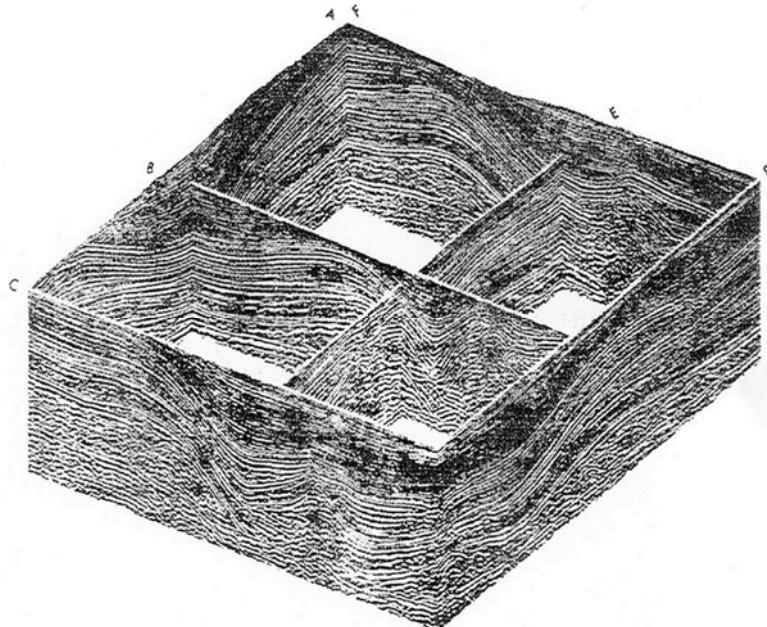


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2D seismic grid (mesh) vs 3D seismic block (cube)



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Acquisition - Processing - Interpretation

► Data Acquisition

- Instantaneous measurement
- Time recording
- Emission – Reception - Recording

► Data Processing

- Field processing
- Processing center
- Processing steps (Quality Control, Editing, Correction, Filtering, Pre-processing, Processing, Migration, Inversion, ...)

► Data Interpretation

- Structural and/or Stratigraphic model
- Prospect definition

Seismic waves propagation: definitions

Within an elastic and isotropic solid

► Volume waves

- Compressional waves “P waves”: → propagation into solids and liquids

Also called: primary wave, longitudinal wave, pressure wave, dilatational wave, non-rotational wave

- Shear waves “S waves”: → propagation only into solids

→ polarization into SV-wave and SH-wave

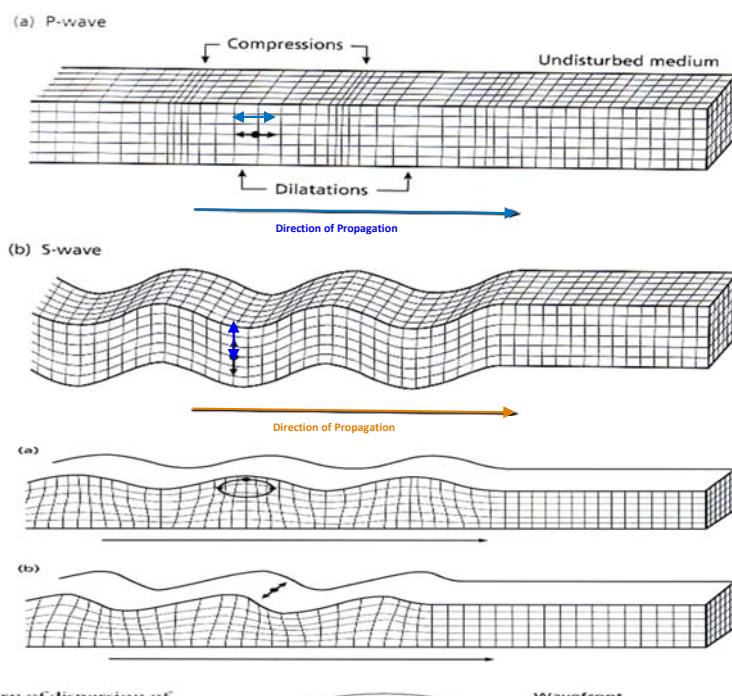
Also called: secondary wave, transverse wave, rotational wave, distortional wave, equivoluminal wave, tangential wave

► Surface waves

Also called: interface wave, long wave

- “Rayleigh waves”
- “Love waves”

Seismic waves propagation



P waves

S waves

Rayleigh waves

Love waves

Each medium has the following mechanical parameters:

- Propagation velocity for Compressional waves : V_p
- Propagation velocity for Shear waves : V_s
- Density : ρ

Rock velocity and density

Formations	P Velocities Vp (m/s)	S Velocities Vs (m/s)	Densities P (g/cm³)
Rubbish, Soil	300 – 700	100 – 300	1,7 – 2,4
Dry Sand	400 – 1200	100 – 500	1,5 – 1,7
Wet Sand	1500 – 4000	400 – 1200	1,9 – 2,1
Shale, Clay	1100 – 2500	200 – 800	2,0 – 2,4
Marl	2000 – 3000	750 – 1500	2,1 – 2,6
Sandstone	3000 – 4500	1200 – 2800	2,1 – 2,4
Limestone	3500 – 6000	2000 – 3300	2,4 – 2,7
Chalk	2300 – 2600	1100 – 1300	1,8 – 2,3
Salt, Anhydrite	4000 – 5500	2200 – 3100	2,1 – 3,0
Dolomite	3500 – 6500	1900 – 3600	2,5 – 2,9
Granite	4500 – 6000	2500 – 3300	2,5 – 2,7
Basalt	5000 – 6000	2800 – 3400	2,7 – 3,1
Coal	2200 – 2700	1000 – 1400	1,3 – 1,8
Water	1450 – 1500	-	1,0
Oil	1200 – 1250	-	0,6 – 0,9

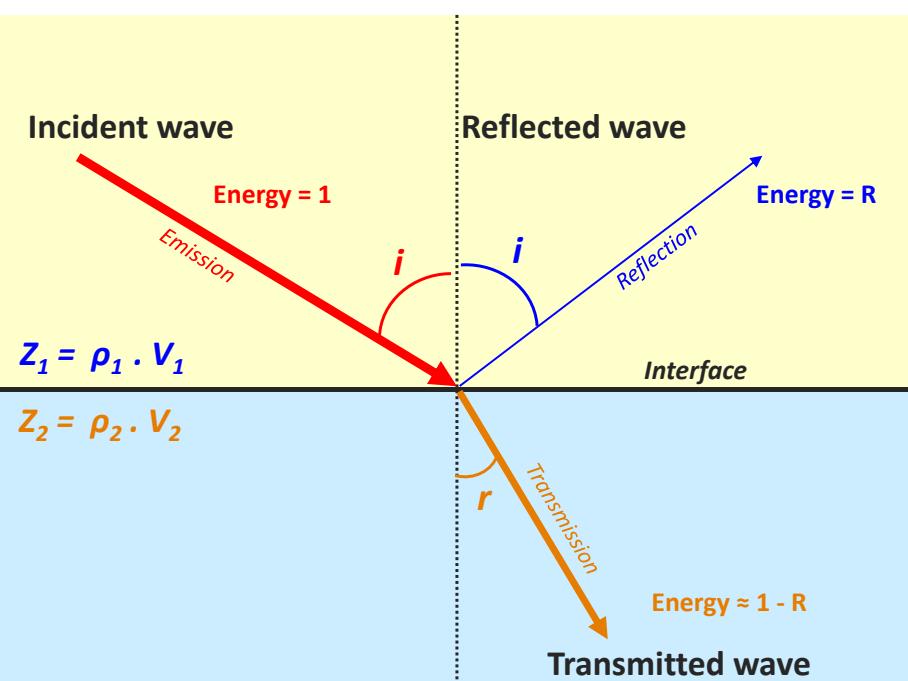
Principles of waves propagation

Plane incident wave propagating within an elastic and isotropic medium

Acoustic parameters:

Density (ρ), Velocity (V),
Acoustic impedance (Z)

V_1 = medium 1 velocity
 V_2 = medium 2 velocity,
 i = angle of incidence = angle of reflection within medium 1
 r = angle of refraction within medium 2



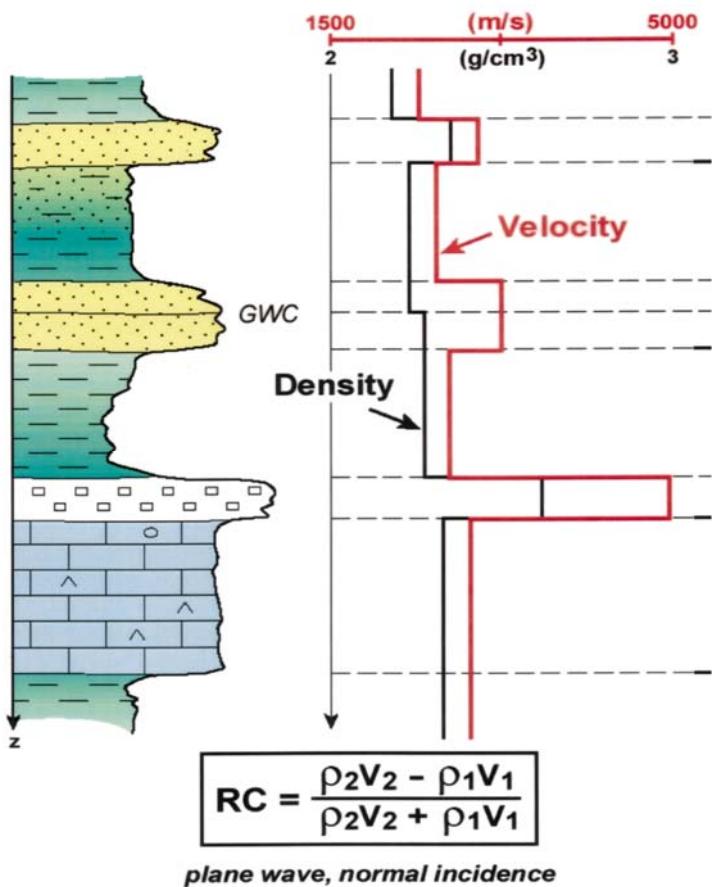
Orthogonal incidence ($i \approx 0^\circ$)

Snell-Descartes' law

$$\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \frac{V_1}{V_2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\sin i}{V_1} = \frac{\sin r}{V_2} = \frac{\sin i}{V_1}$$

From geological layers to reflection coefficients

- ▶ $V = 2\ 500 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,2 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 3\ 200 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,4 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 2\ 600 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,25 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 3\ 300 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,25 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 3\ 300 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,3 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 2\ 700 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,3 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 5\ 000 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,7 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 2\ 900 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,4 \text{ g/cm}^3$
- ▶ $V = 2\ 700 \text{ m/s} - \rho = 2,3 \text{ g/cm}^3$



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Wave propagation - Key points



- ▶ **Reflection, Transmission, Refraction exist because of Velocity contrasts**
- ▶ **Amplitude contrasts exist because of Velocity and Density contrasts**
(i.e. contrasts of acoustic impedance [AI, Z])
- ▶ **Reflection coefficient for $i < 15^\circ$: $R_{1-2} = \frac{\rho_2 V_2 - \rho_1 V_1}{\rho_2 V_2 + \rho_1 V_1}$**

► Petroleum geophysics

- Introduction to petroleum geophysics
- Principles of seismic reflection
- Seismic acquisition
 - Land seismic
 - Marine seismic
- Seismic processing and imaging
- Seismic interpretation
- Seismic attributes and facies
- 4D seismic

Acquisition and processing: objectives

- The objective of seismic **acquisition** is to **record** as much as possible **primary reflections** (i.e. signal) and as less as possible others events (i.e. noise)
- The goal of seismic **processing** is to sort out the different types of acoustic waves in order to **extract** as much as possible **primary reflections** (as PP-waves).

Vibrator truck: mechanical description (land seismic)

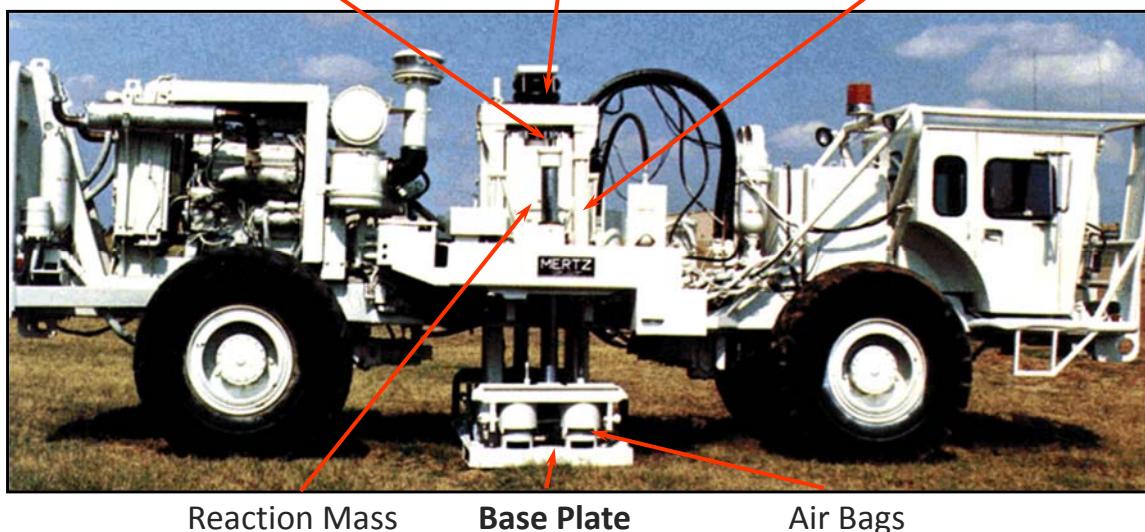
- Land seismic sources

Explosive
Vibrator Truck

Main
Lift

Mass centring Air bag

Hydraulic actuators



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Seismic sources - Key points

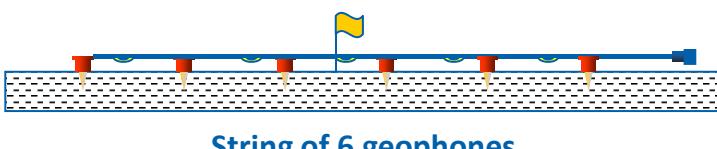


- ▶ A seismic source is a device that releases energy which generates **acoustic waves** in the ground
- ▶ The main qualities for a seismic source are:
 - **Penetration capability** = Energy
 - **Resolution capability** = Wide frequency range (band)
 - **Repeatability and accuracy** = Strong quality control

Seismic receivers - Geophone

► One-component geophone principle

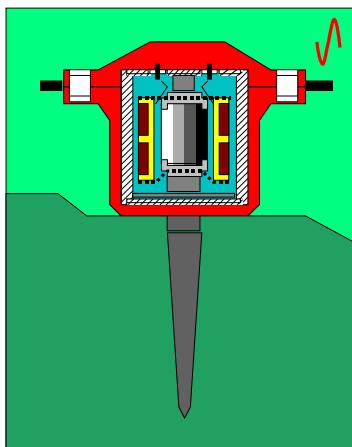
- A ring magnet with two polar parts.
- A coil which surrounds the magnet.
- Springs to keep coil suspended.
- Sealed metal case fitted with electrodes.
- A plastic protective case with a metal spike.
- The spike ensure the best ground coupling.



Detector sensitive to particle motion
Transforms seismic energy into electrical voltage



- Vertical
- Horizontal
- 3-Components

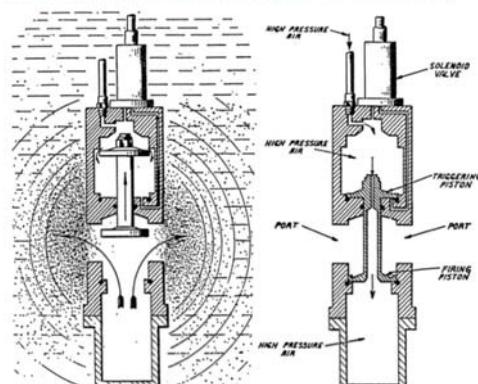
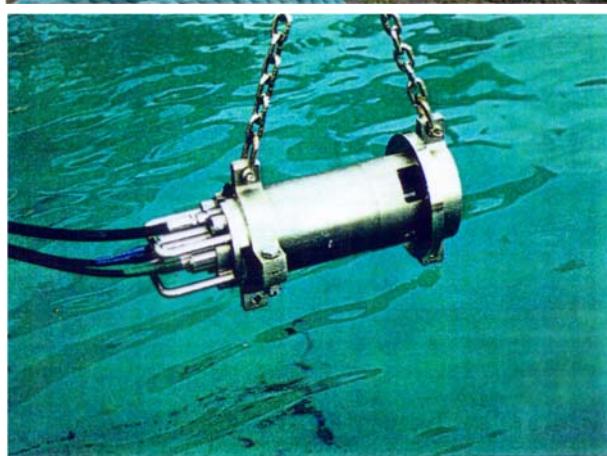
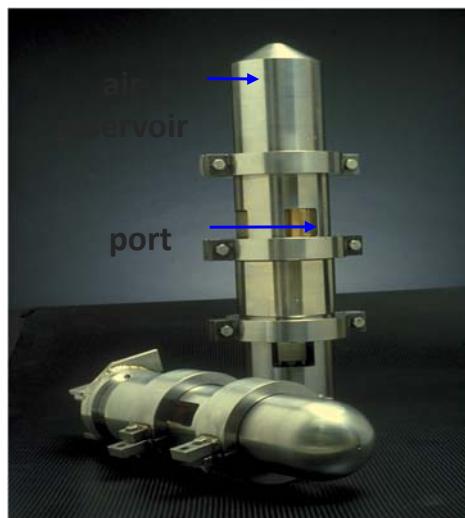


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Marine seismic source: Airguns (offshore seismic)



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Seismic receivers - Hydrophone

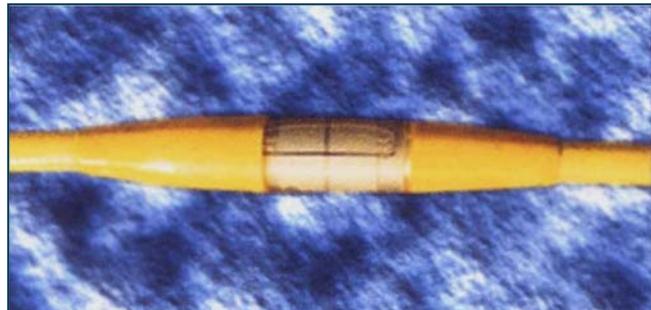


Hydrophones and streamer



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Detector sensitive to pressure variations
Transforms seismic energy into electrical voltage



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Seismic receivers

► Geophone:

- Detector sensitive to particle motion
 - Transforms seismic energy into electrical voltage
- Vertical
Horizontal
3 Components

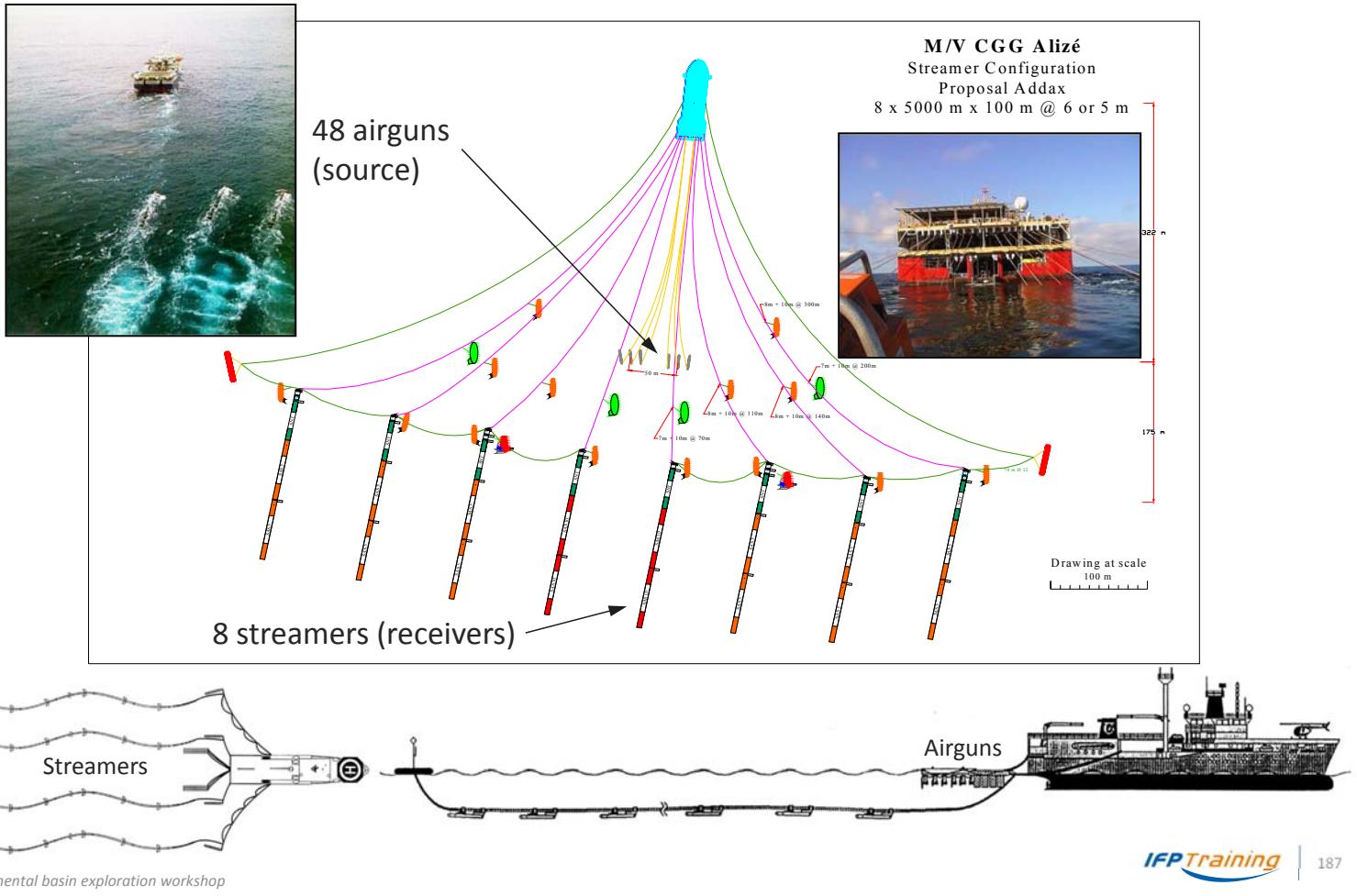
► Hydrophone:

- Detector sensitive to pressure variations
- Transforms seismic energy into electrical voltage

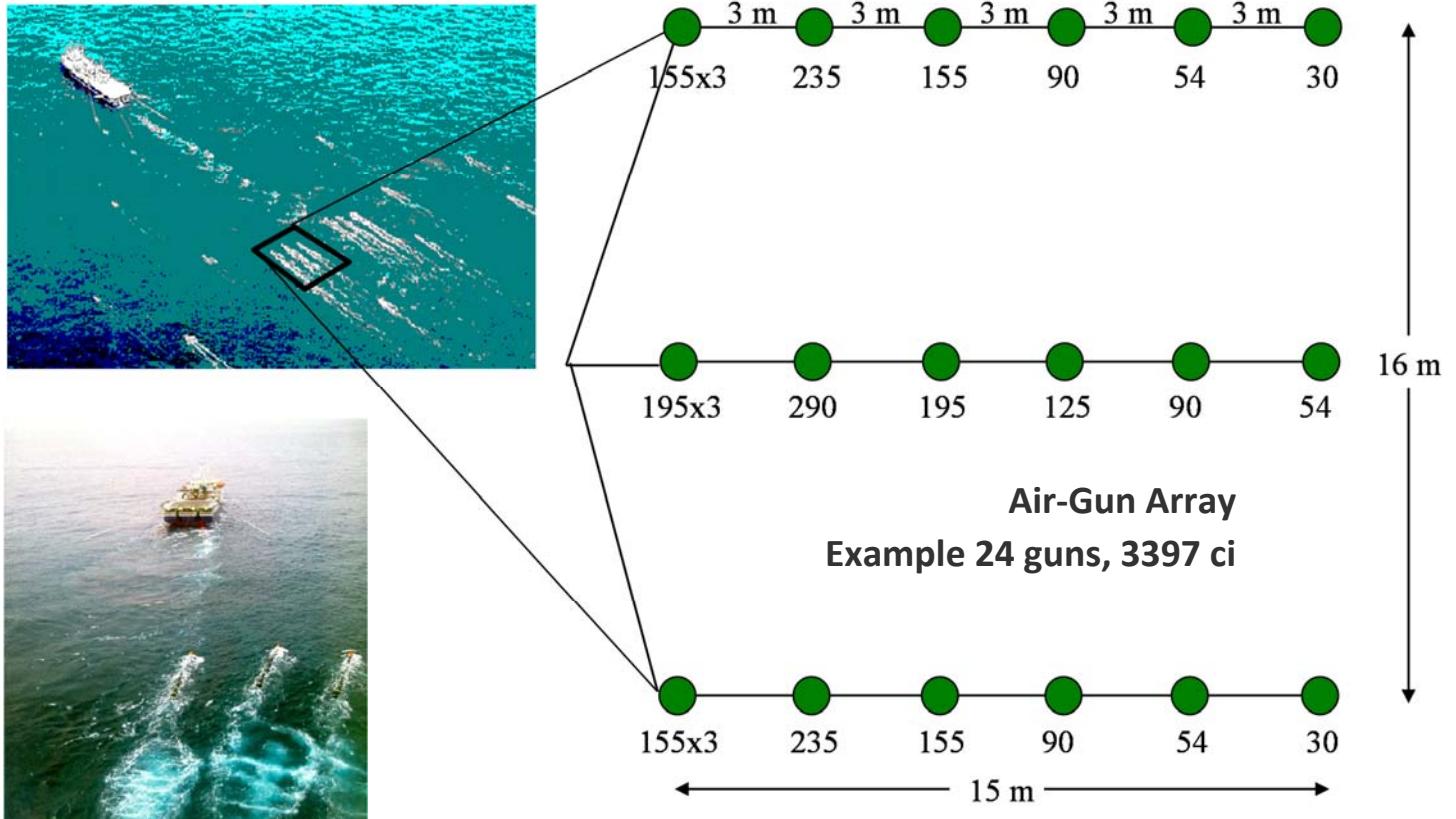
► ...



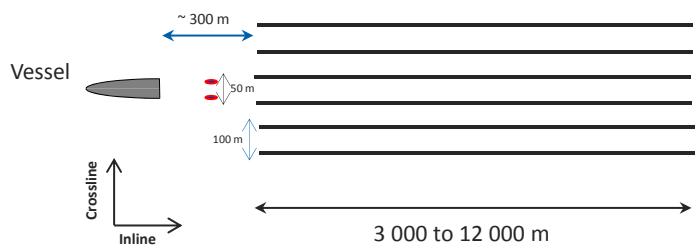
Marine seismic acquisition set-up



Airgun array horizontal geometry



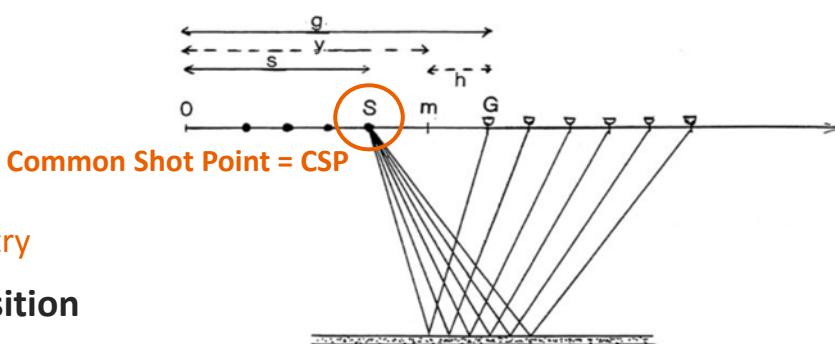
Specific vessels for seismic ...



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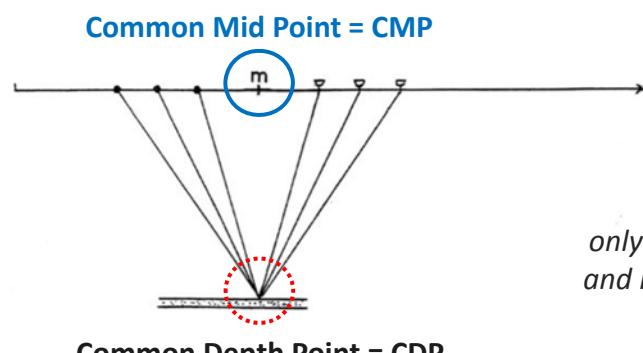
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Acquisition set up and geometry - Shot gather



Off-end geometry

Marine acquisition



Split-spread geometry

Land acquisition

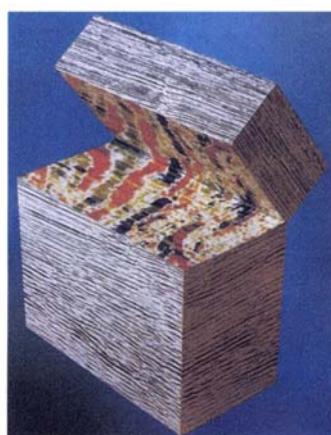
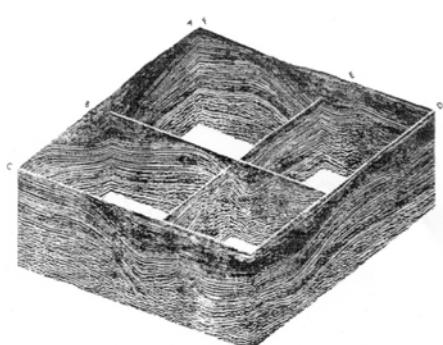
$CMP = CDP$
only when reflector is horizontal
and medium horizontally layered

► Petroleum geophysics

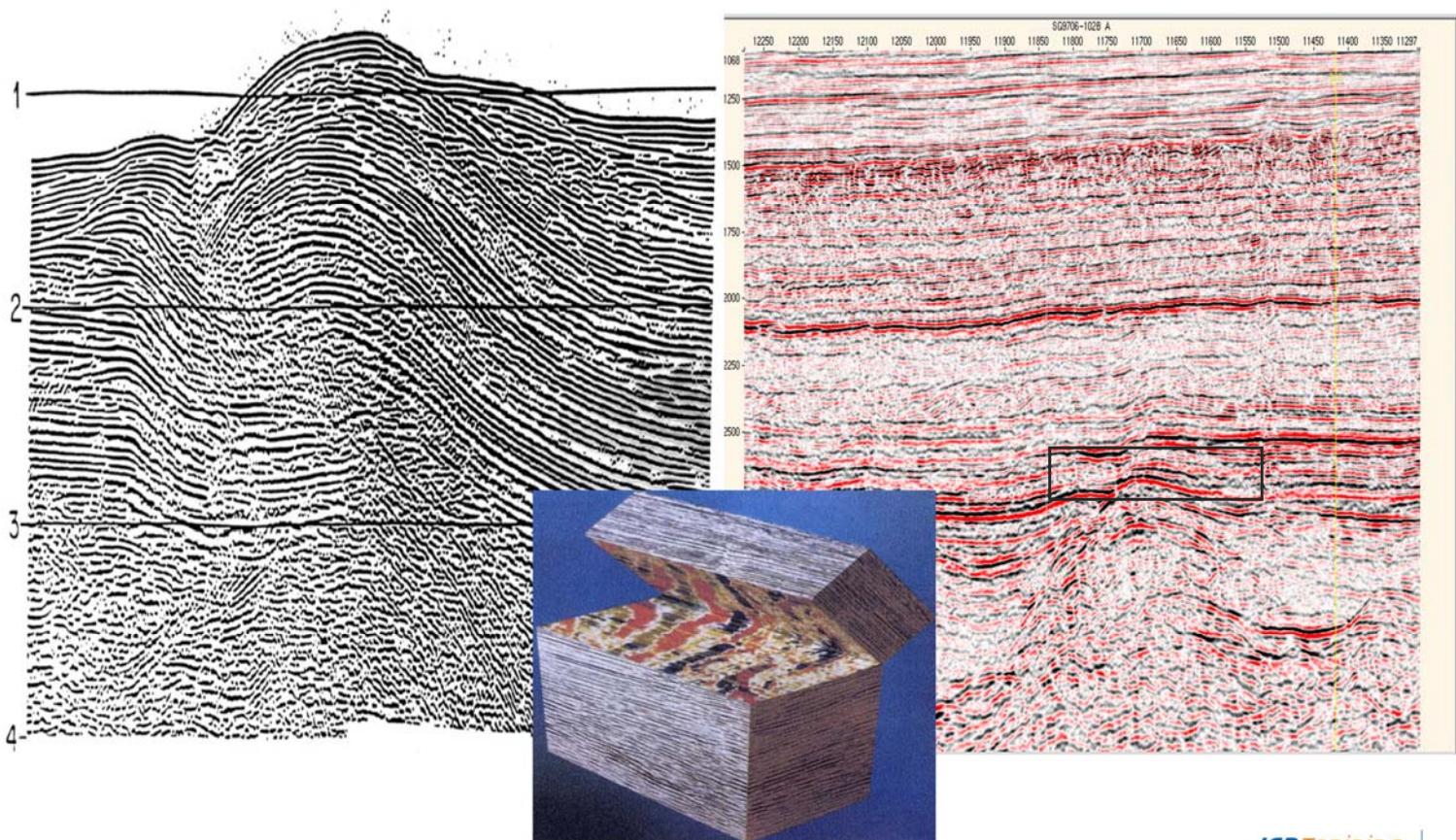
- Introduction to petroleum geophysics
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Seismic processing

- The main objective of seismic processing is to separate different wave trains, and extract as much as possible primary reflections.
- By changing the field raw seismic data, usually to improve the signal-to-noise ratio, so as to facilitate geological interpretation of the subsurface.
- Seismic Processing results are:
 - 2D seismic sections
 - 3D seismic cubes



Final documents: 2D sections or 3D Blocks

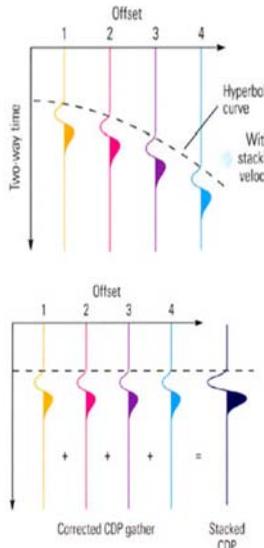
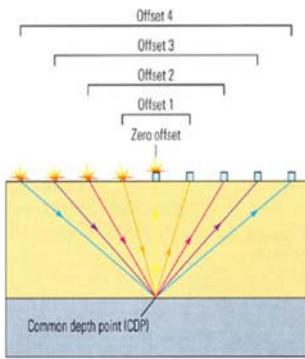


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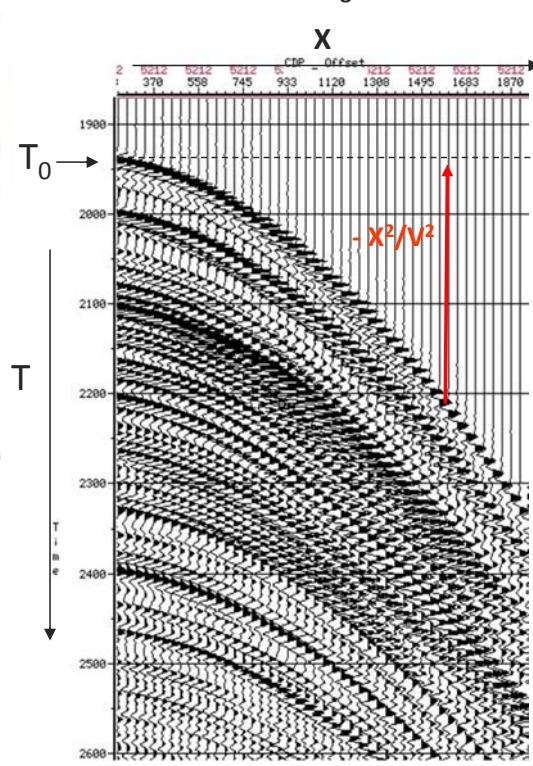
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Seismic « stack » in multiple coverage

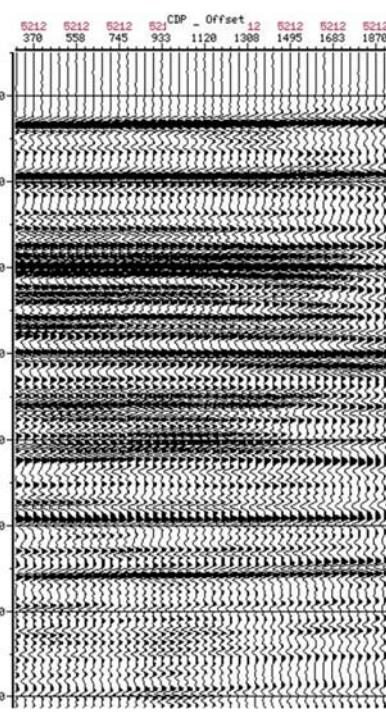


Stacking → attenuation of signal/noise ratio

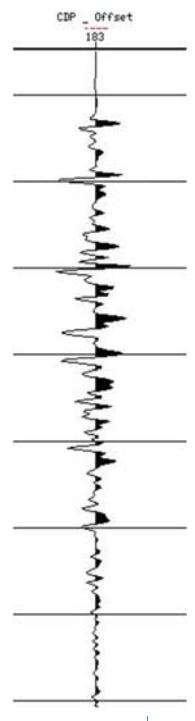
ORIGINAL CMP gather



CMP gather after velocity (NMO) correction



Stacked CMP gather

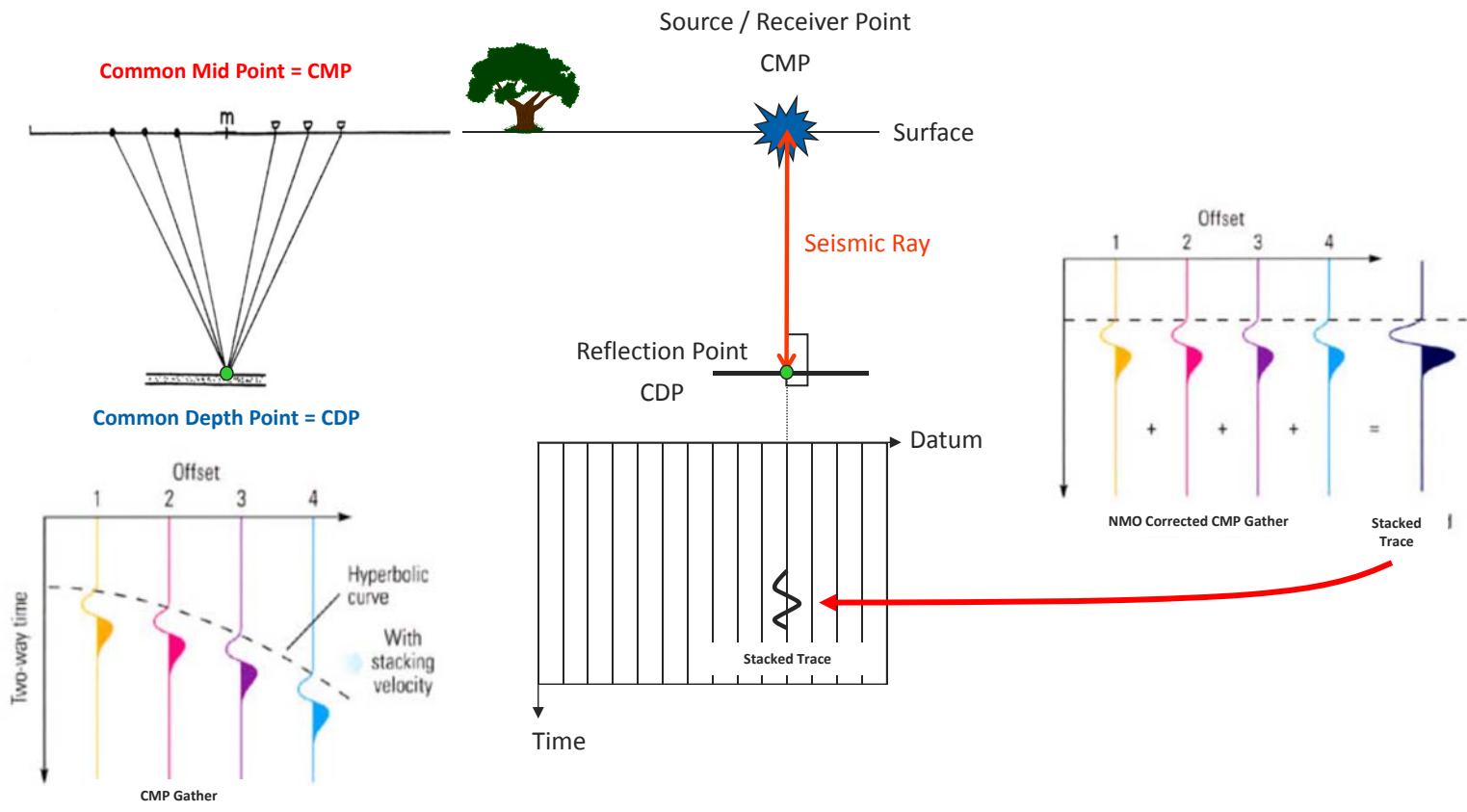


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What is the stack result? Vertical stack!



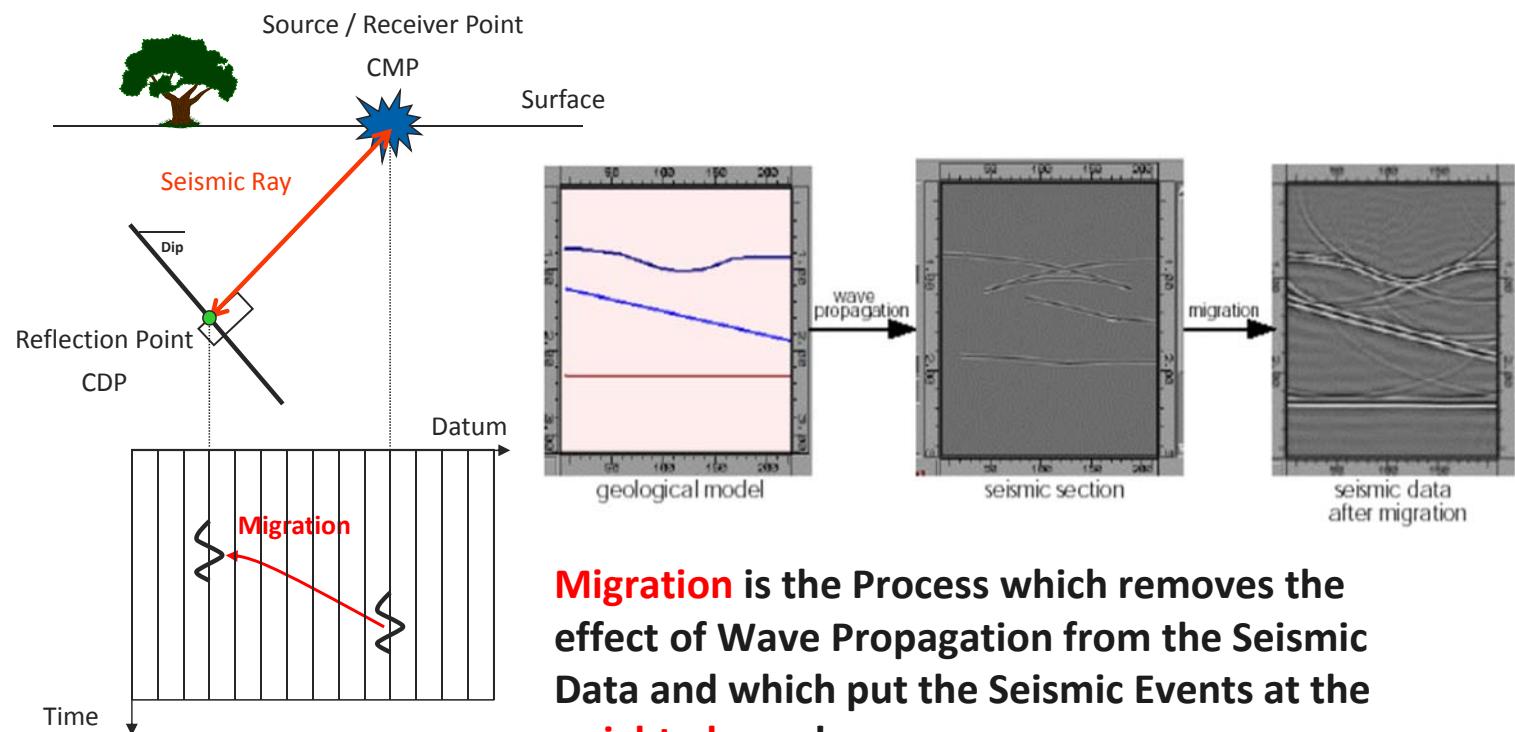
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If DIP, vertical stack is not at the right place!

We need « seismic migration »



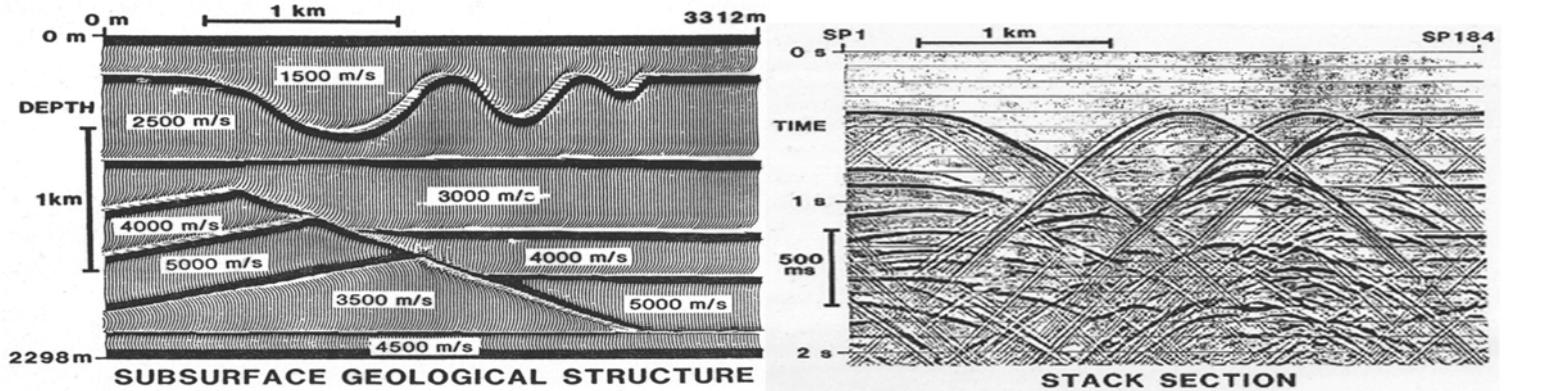
Migration is the Process which removes the effect of Wave Propagation from the Seismic Data and which put the Seismic Events at the « right place »!

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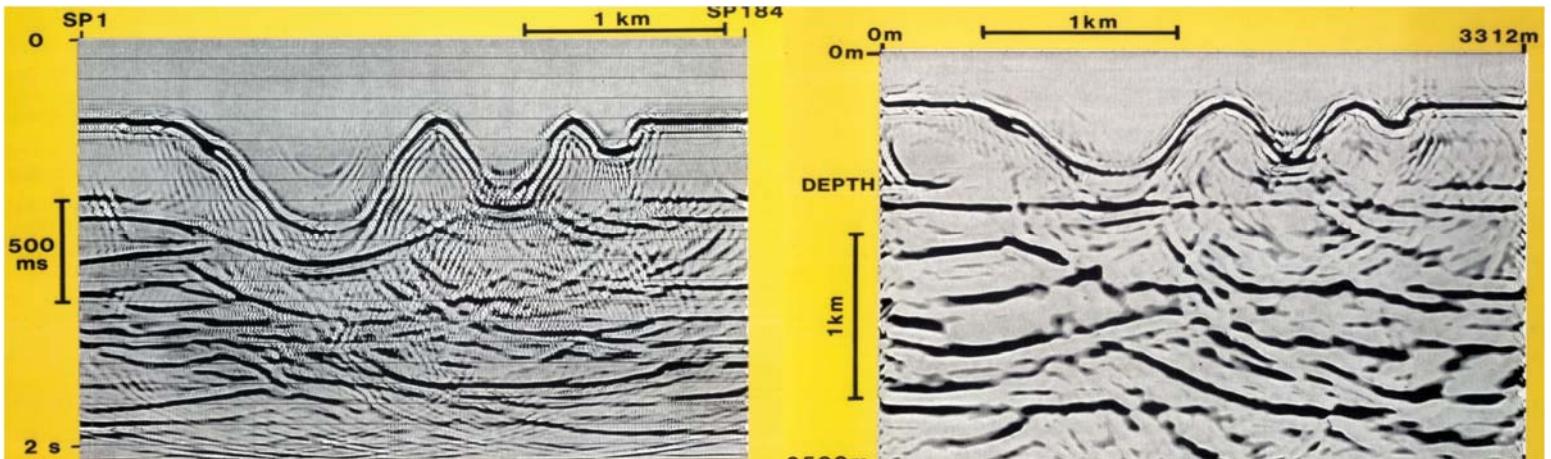
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Geology versus stack section (time)



POST-STACK: TIME MIGRATION versus DEPTH MIGRATION



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Seismic processing and imaging - Key points

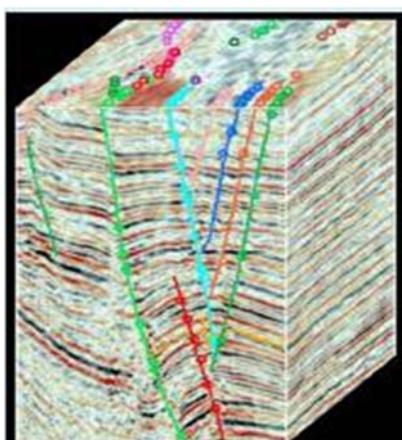


- ▶ **Seismic processing is an iterative process.**
 - Several steps require iteration, such as:
 - Static corrections, Velocity analysis, Stack, Migration, ...

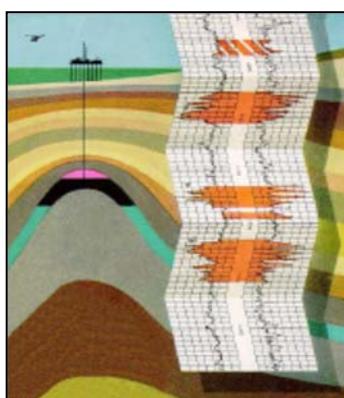
► Petroleum geophysics

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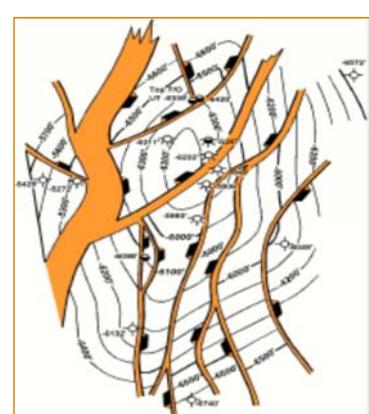
Seismic interpretation workflow



Seismic data



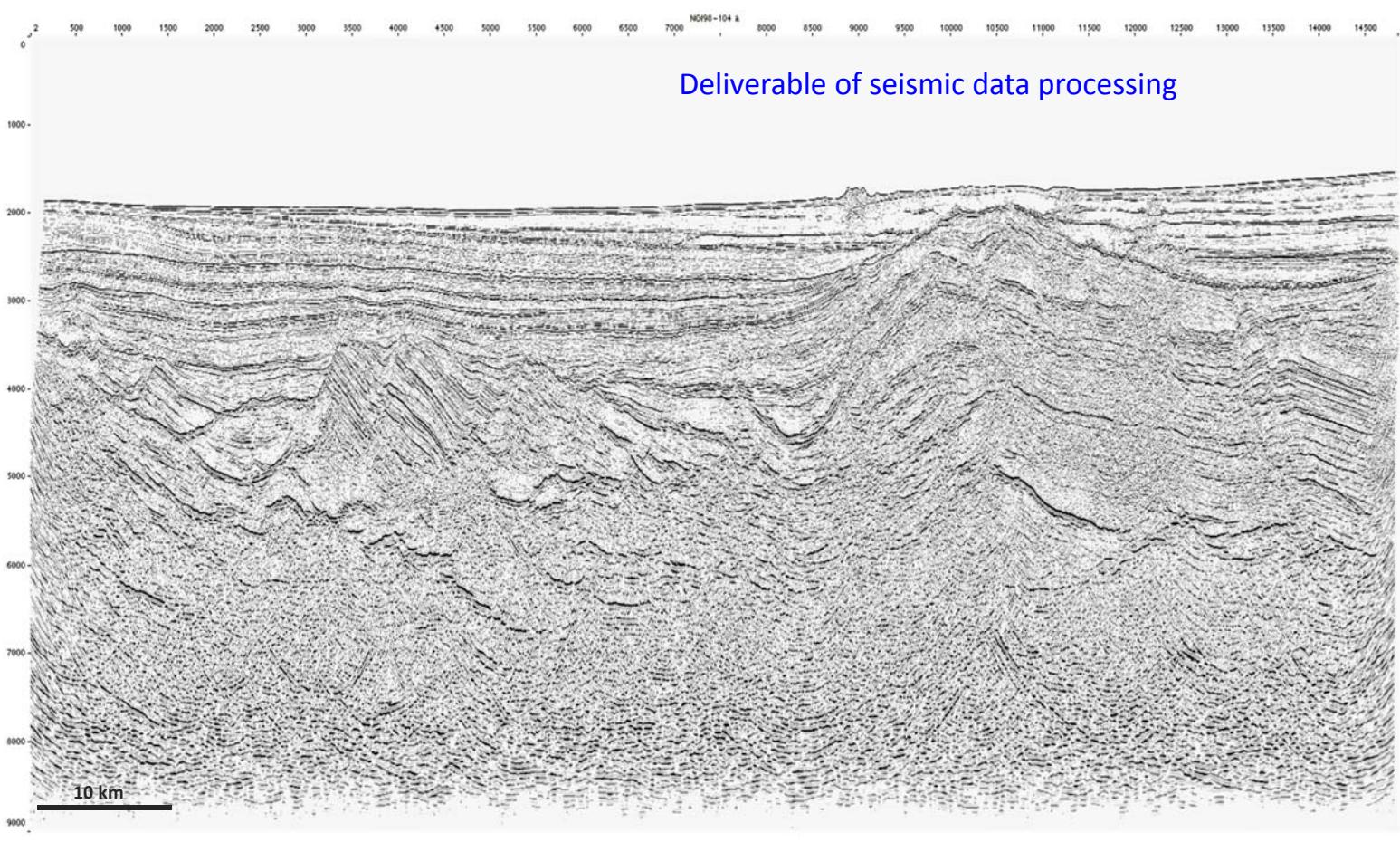
Well data



Isochron map of seismic horizon (top/base)

Fault analysis

Seismic section - Raw

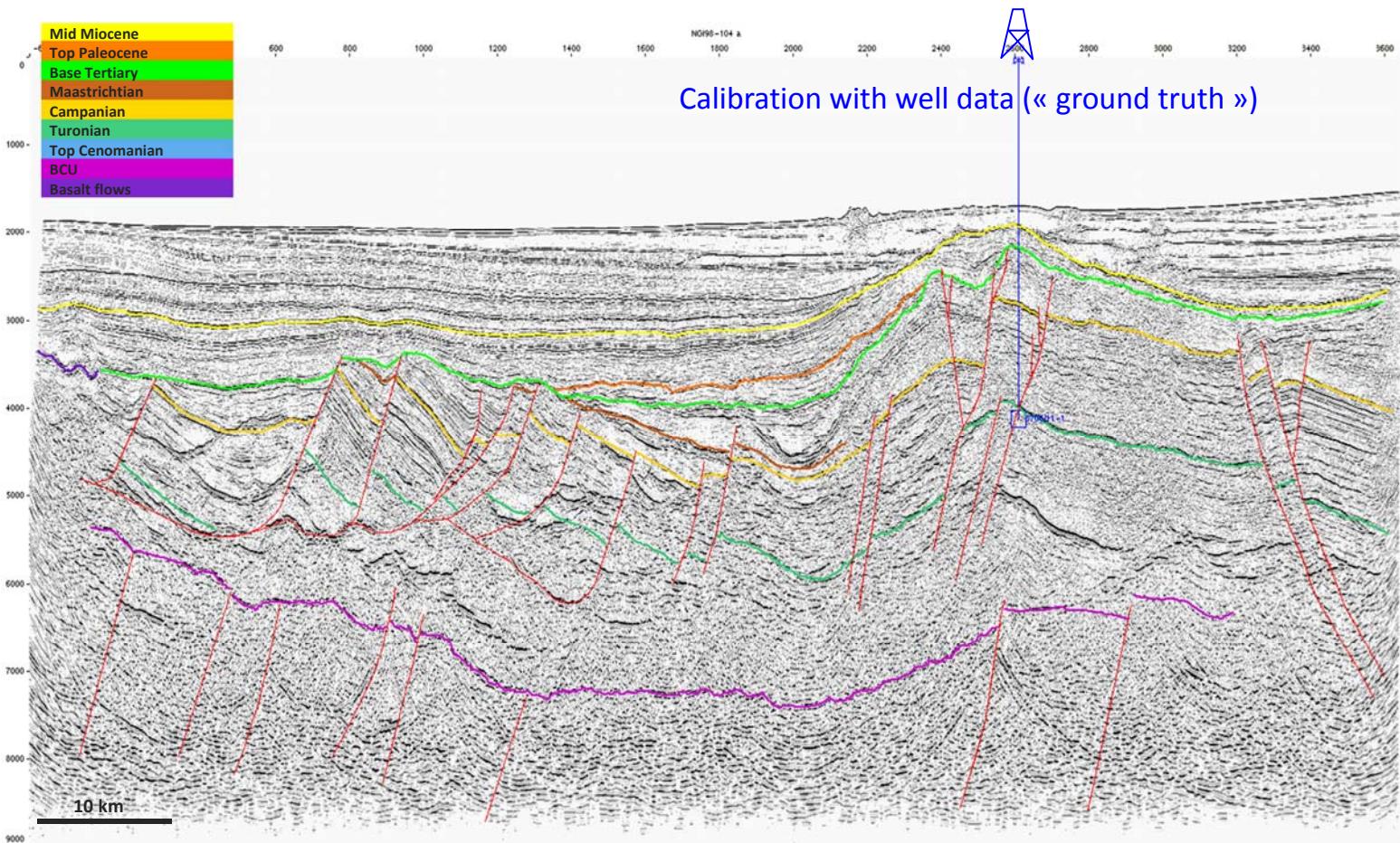


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Seismic section - Interpreted



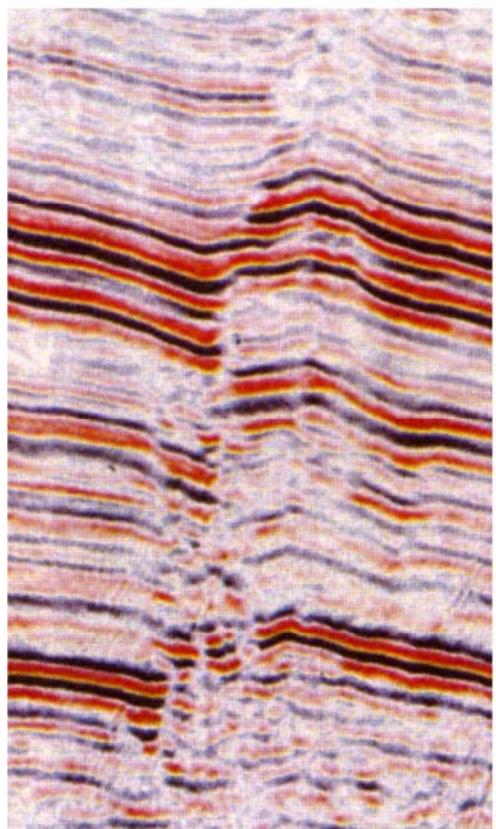
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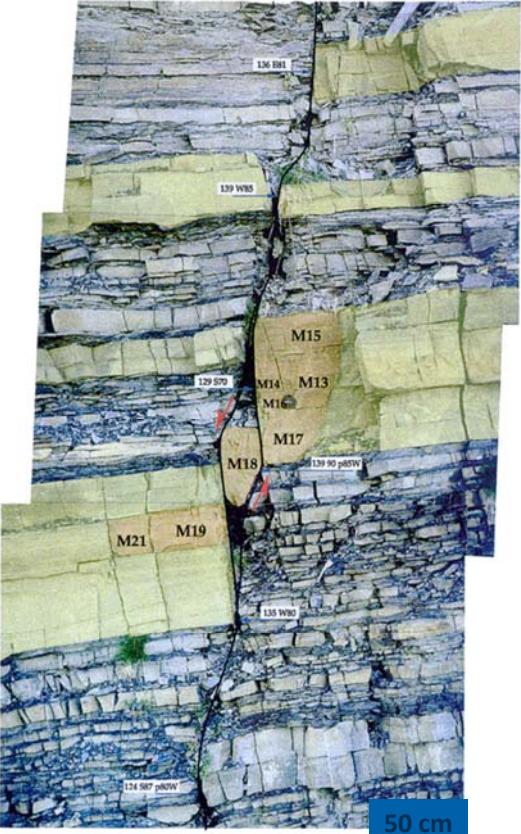
202

Picking faults on seismic

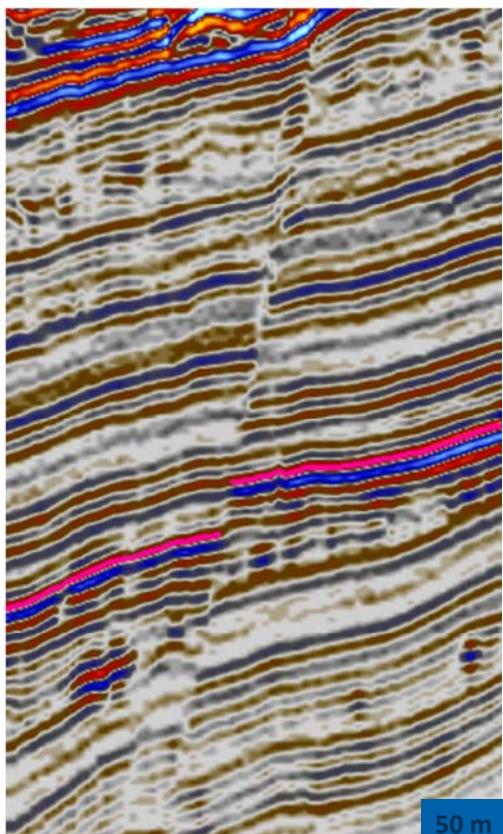
Seismic scale



Outcrop scale



HR seismic scale



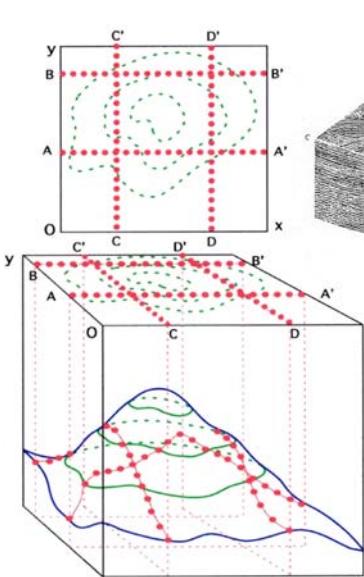
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2D vs 3D seismic acquisition

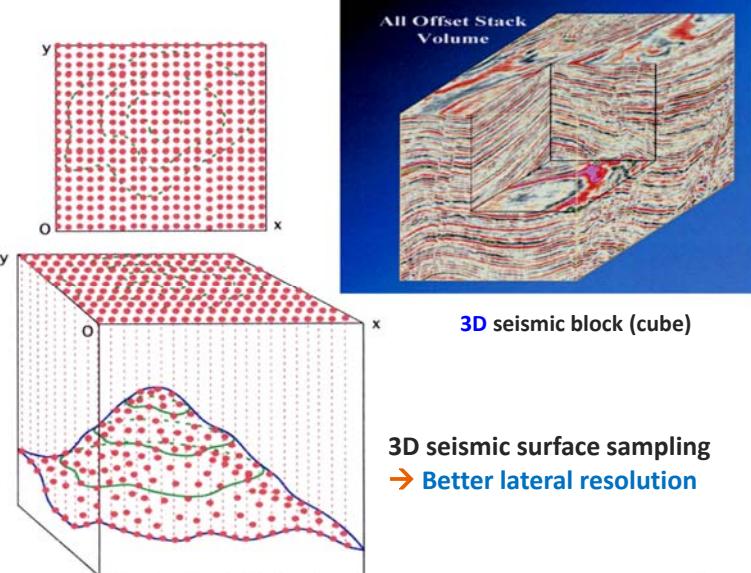
- ▶ Wide, variable spacing between profiles
- ▶ Blind zones in acquisition coverage
- **Significant related uncertainty**



2D seismic surface sampling
→ Poor lateral resolution

- Homogeneous coverage of surveyed area
- High density data sampling
 - Reduced blind zones
 - Enhanced signal quality and processing

➤ Reduced related uncertainty and risks



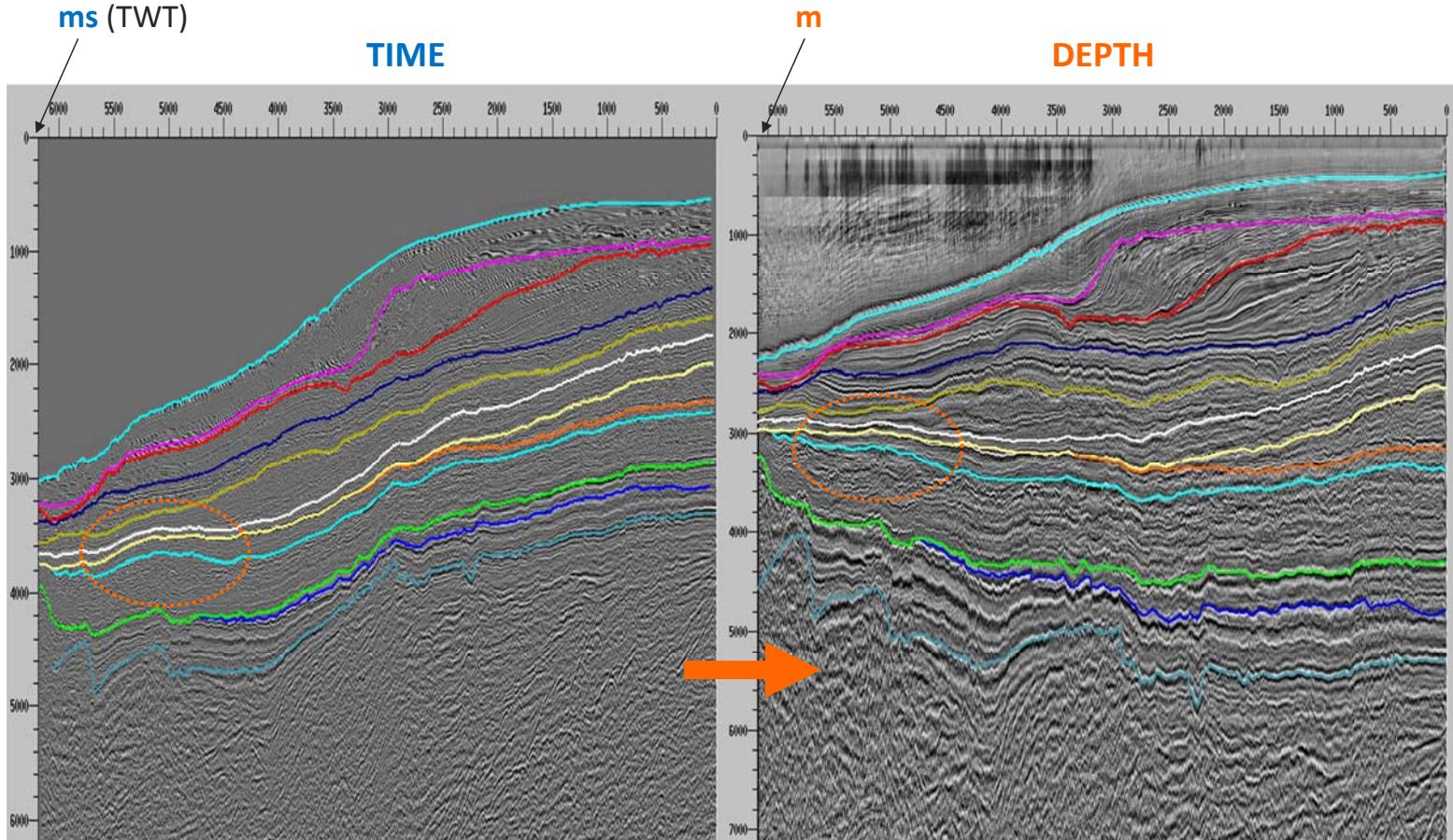
3D seismic surface sampling
→ Better lateral resolution

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Time-to-depth conversion

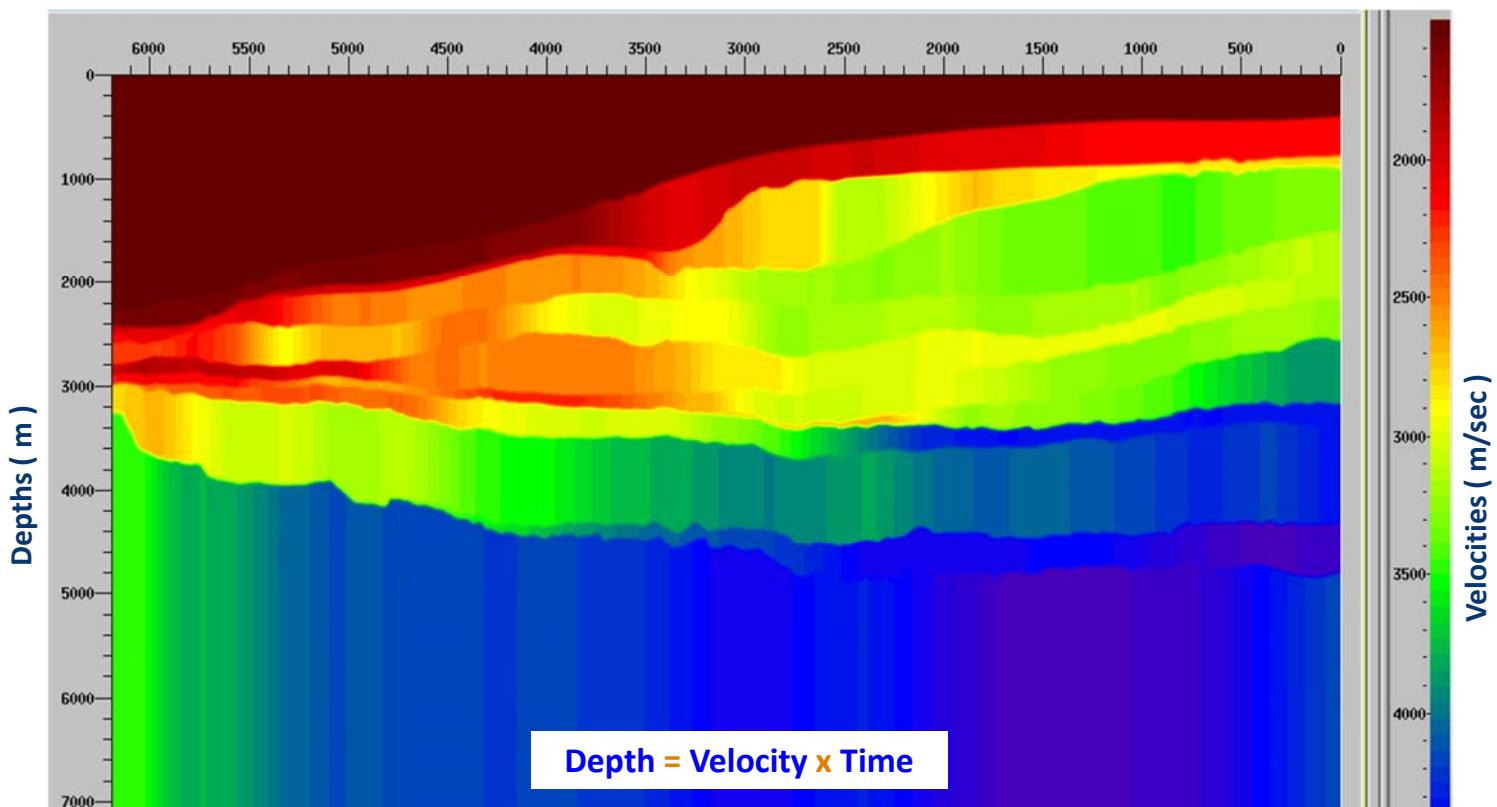


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Velocity model



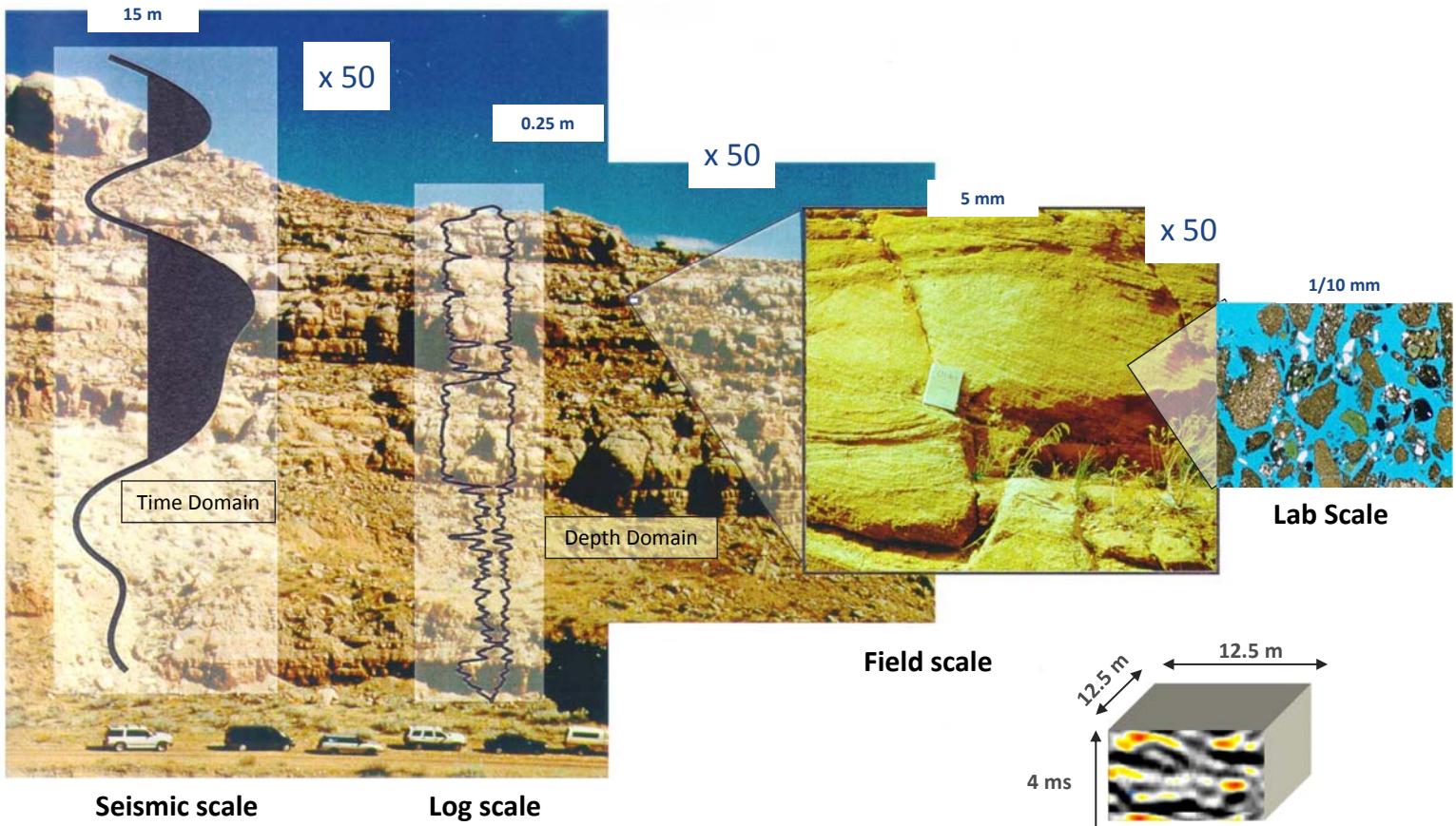
Quality of the **velocity model** is essential to produce reliable interpretation

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Scaling issues: the big challenge!



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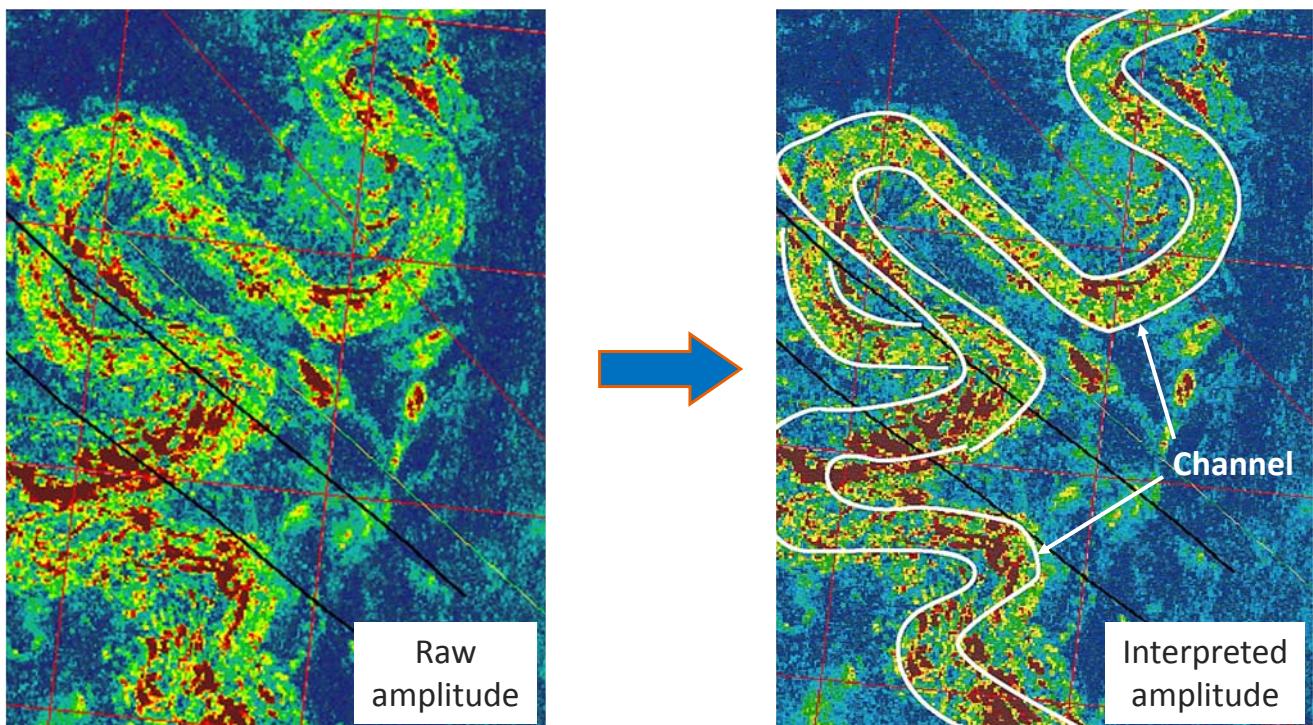
Improvement of geophysics for reservoir purpose

► Reservoir = Rock with fluids in porosity

- Rock
 - 3D seismic
 - Amplitude maps & Seismic facies analysis
 - Inversion & Modeling
- Fluids detection
 - DHI
 - Amplitude anomalies
 - 4D: fluid monitoring

Seismic amplitudes analysis (3D time slice)

Analysis of amplitude anomalies

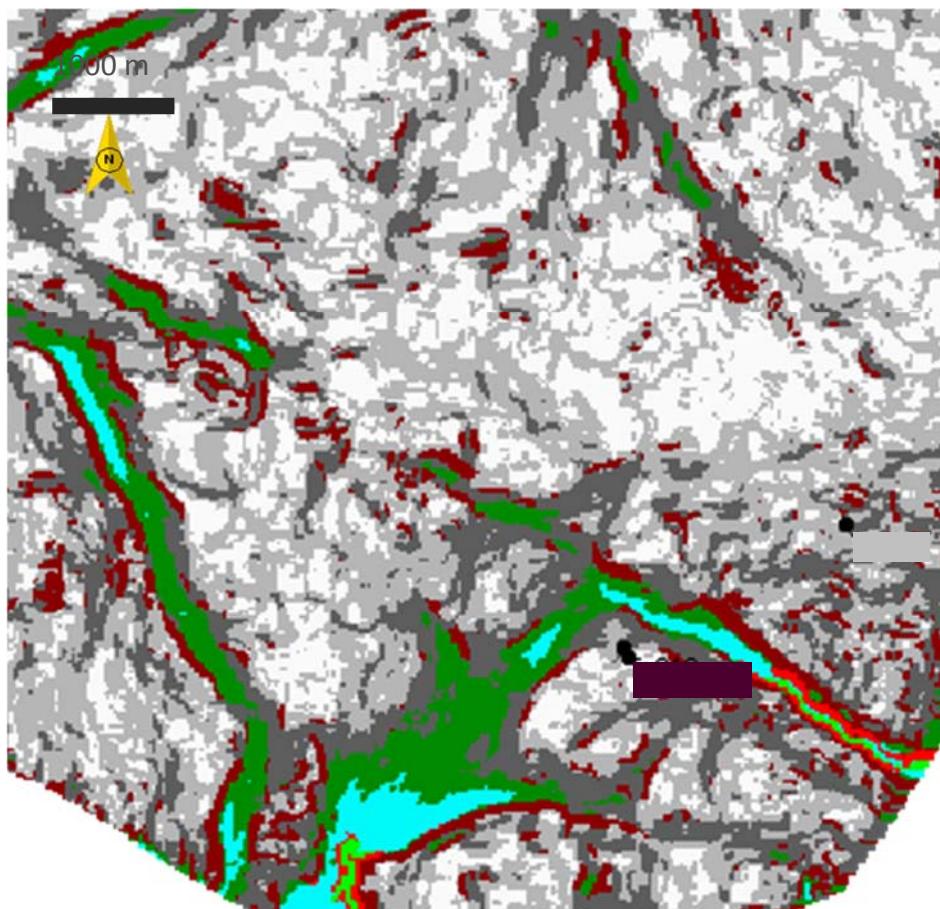


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Seismic facies analysis (3D time slice)



Fracture density map
based on
seismic facies
(= combination of attributes)

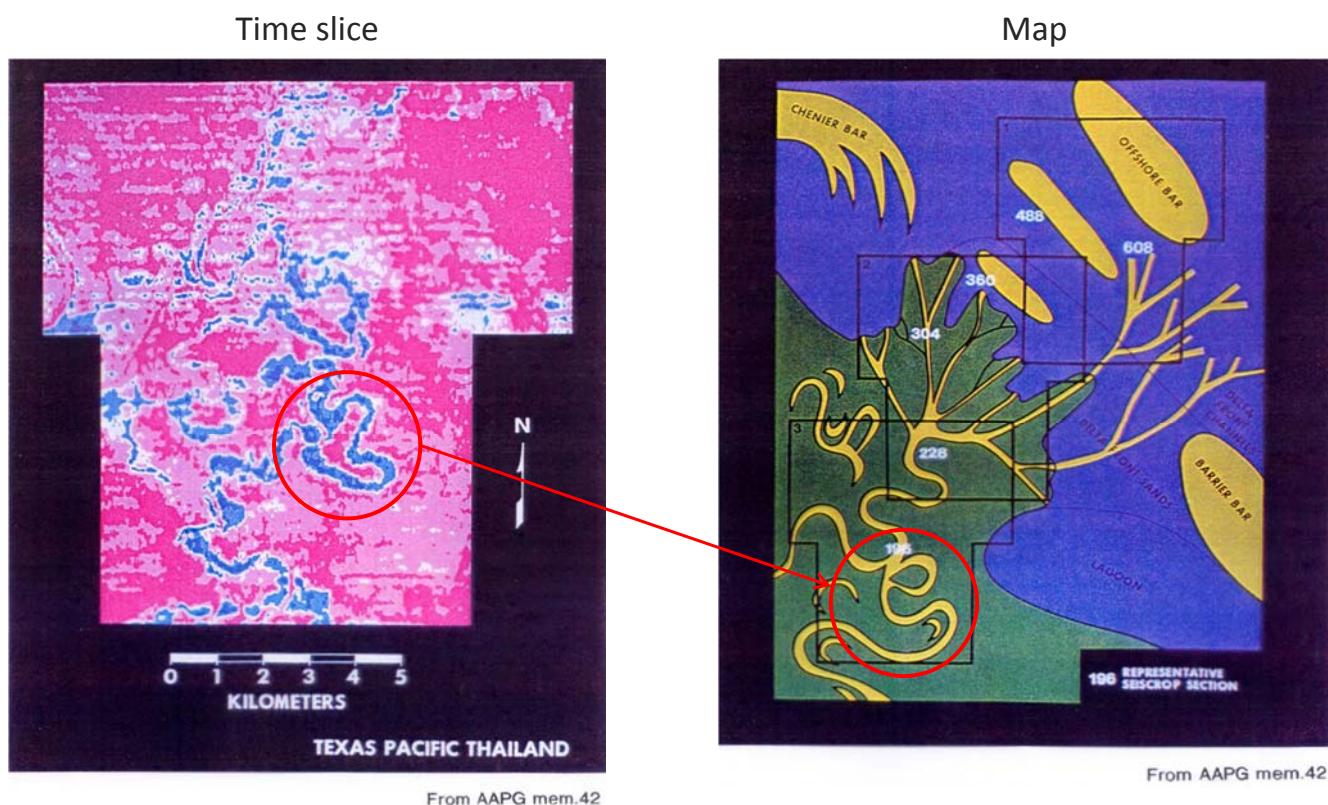
High	1
High	2
High	3
Medium	4
Medium	5
Low	6
Very low	7
Nil	8

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Time slice interpretation



Amplitudes on time slice vs present-day sedimentological analog (Thailand)

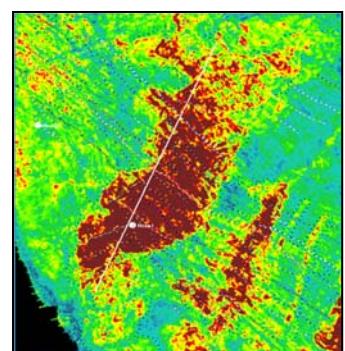
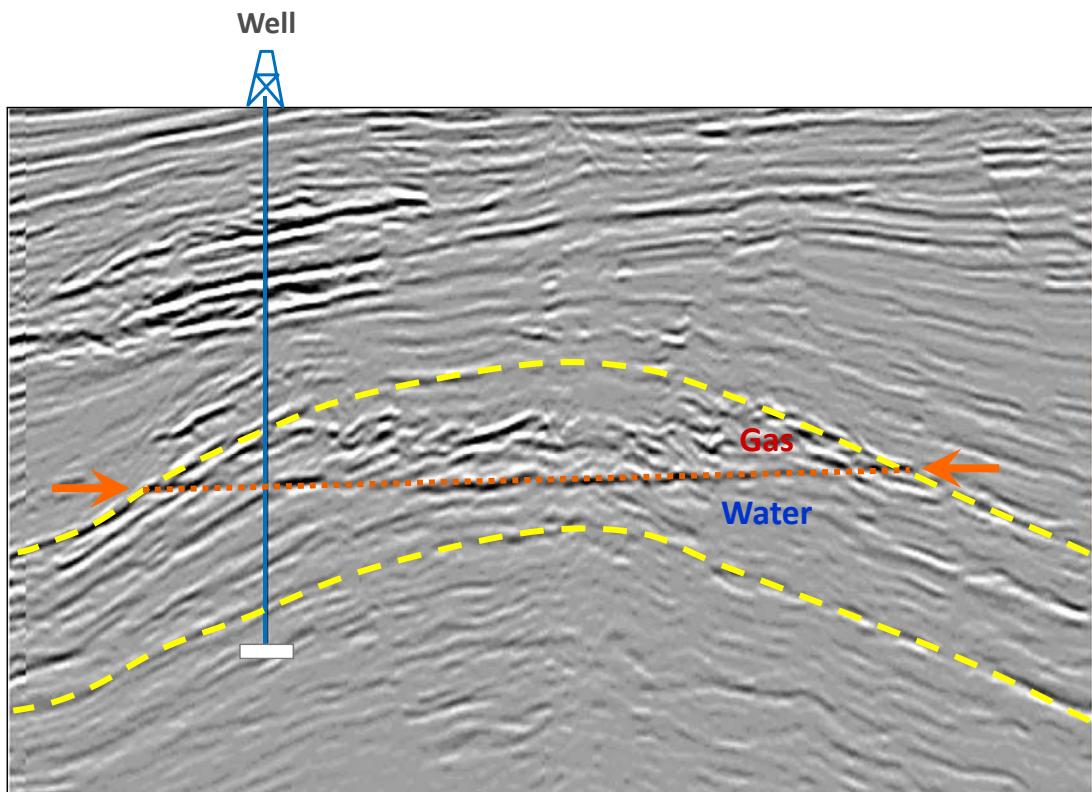
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Qualitative analysis of amplitudes

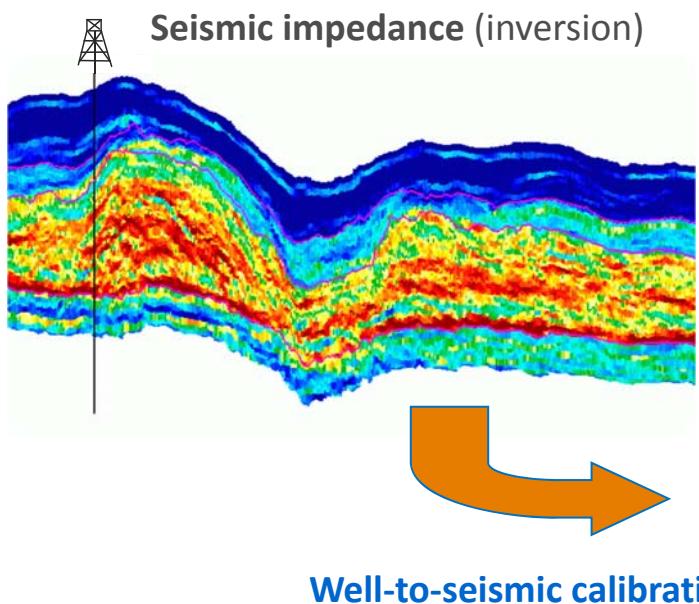
"Flat spot" on map & section



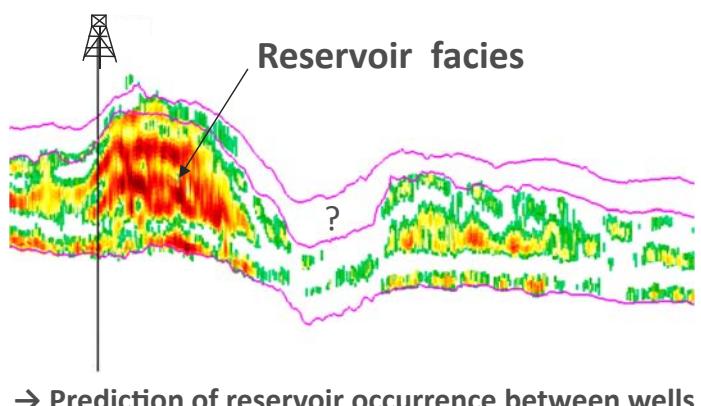
Amplitude map

W. Beydoun et al., 2000 - Courtesy TOTAL

From seismic impedance to seismic facies (of the reservoir)



Correlation of seismic facies with well data.
Only reservoir facies are plotted:
evidence of lateral discontinuity
(facies variation → reservoir quality degradation)



S. Gluck, E. Juve, Y. Lafet, CGG

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4D seismic - 4th dimension = Time

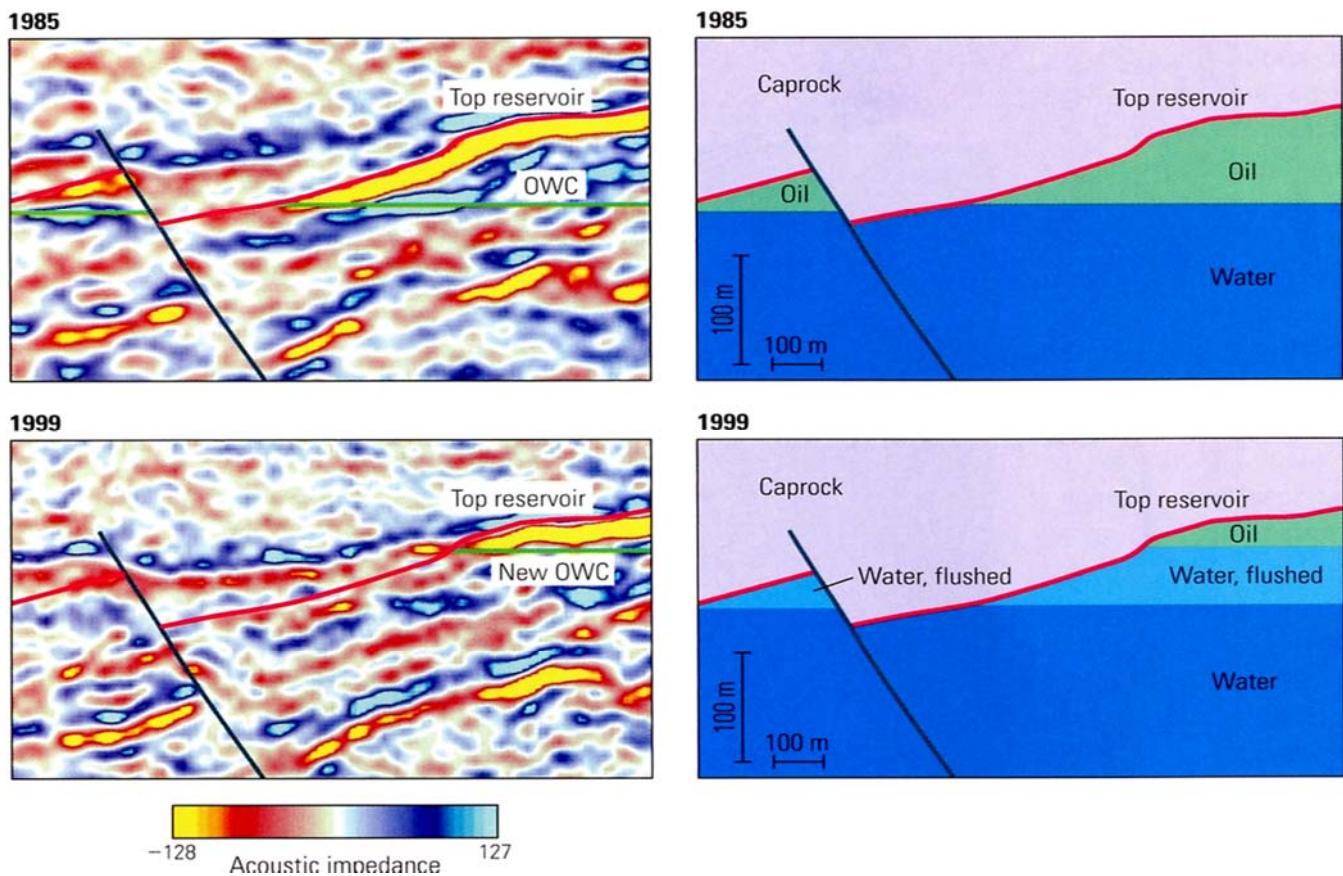
► Principle

- Repeated seismic acquisition on same field
- Seismic data “difference analysis”

► Applications

- Identify fluid contact variations (vertical or lateral)
- Track pore fluid saturation changes
- Identify by-passed oil / in-fill drilling opportunities
- Monitor performance of enhanced recovery (EOR) programs
- Optimize production

4D seismic – Fluid level monitoring



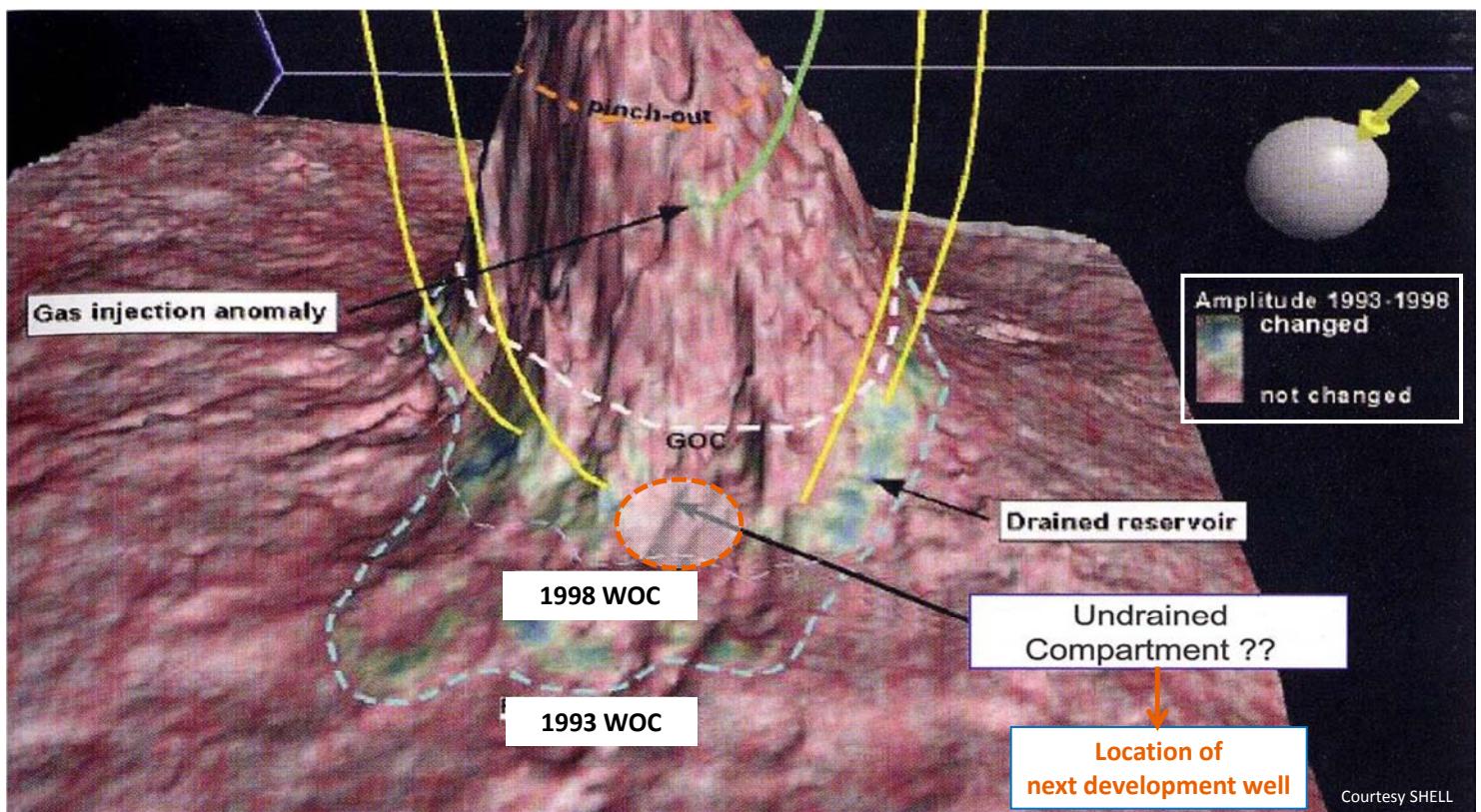
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4D seismic – Production optimization

Identification and analysis of differences between two surveys (1993-1998)



Courtesy SHELL

4D seismic: monitoring of production & reservoir sweeping → development well positioning

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- ▶ Seismic provides an image of the subsurface (geometry) that is used (along with other data) to identify possible hydrocarbons accumulations (structures)
- ▶ Seismic data interpretation results are used to build models (both geological and reservoir) that summarize what can be understood at a given time
- ▶ Seismic models are validated (geologically) only by drilling (sampling “ground truth”)
- ▶ Data gathering during development drilling, together with seismic information, allow models (both static and/or dynamic) to evolve
- ▶ 4D seismic allows to monitor the evolution of a producing field (water injection, sweep efficiency,...) by comparing seismic images taken over time

Geophysics in Exploration-Production - Key points - 2/2



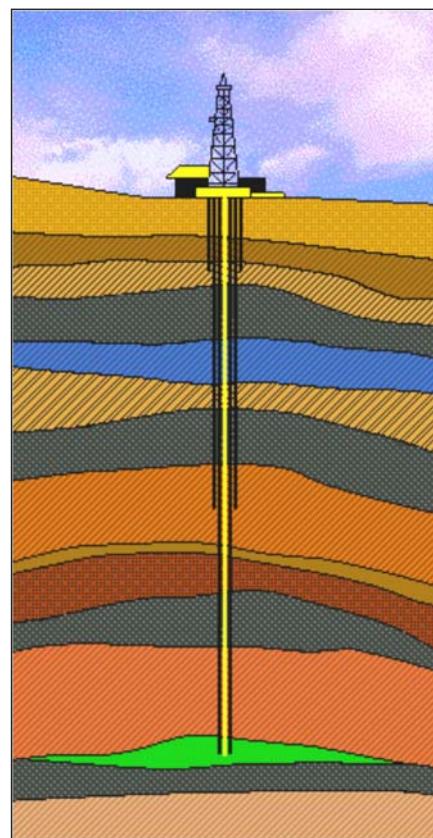
- ▶ **Geophysics is applied at each step of Exploration**
 - General exploration (screening)
 - Detailed exploration (prospect-focused)
 - “Wildcat” exploration well positioning
 - Delineation well positioning (appraisal)
- ▶ **Geophysics is also used in Production**
 - Development well positioning
 - EOR monitoring (4D seismic)
- ▶ **Geophysics is even used in Drilling**
 - Well path monitoring (geosteering)

► Operations geology

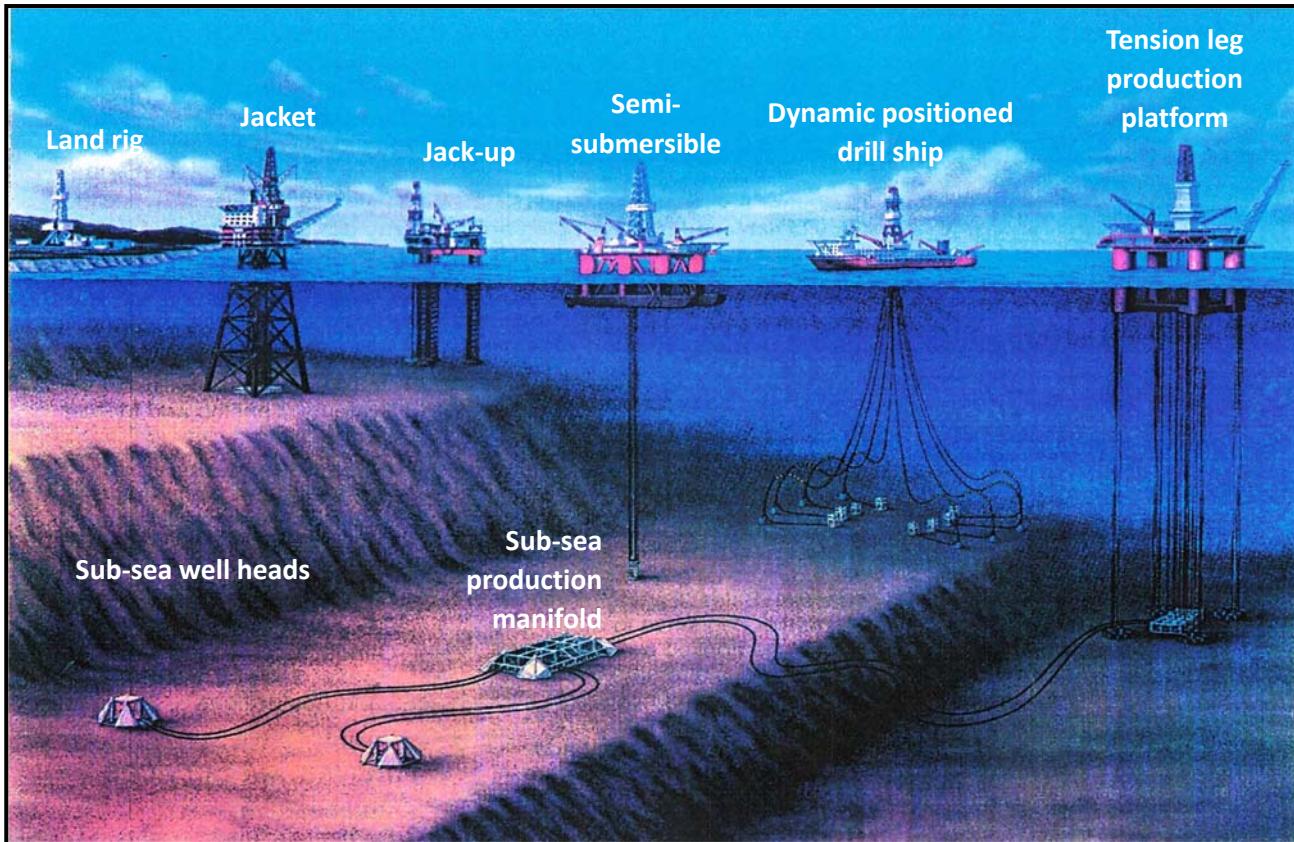
- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
- Logging
 - Mud logging
 - Wireline logging
 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Functions of the wells

- ▶ Allow access to the underground hydrocarbon reservoirs and to their properties .
- ▶ Ensure efficient communication between the reservoir and the well's interior.
- ▶ Conduit to bring safely and efficiently hydrocarbons to surface .
- ▶ Allow the control of the high pressure hydrocarbon production.
- ▶ Allow well interventions to optimize hydrocarbon production during reservoir exploitation



Different types of drilling rigs

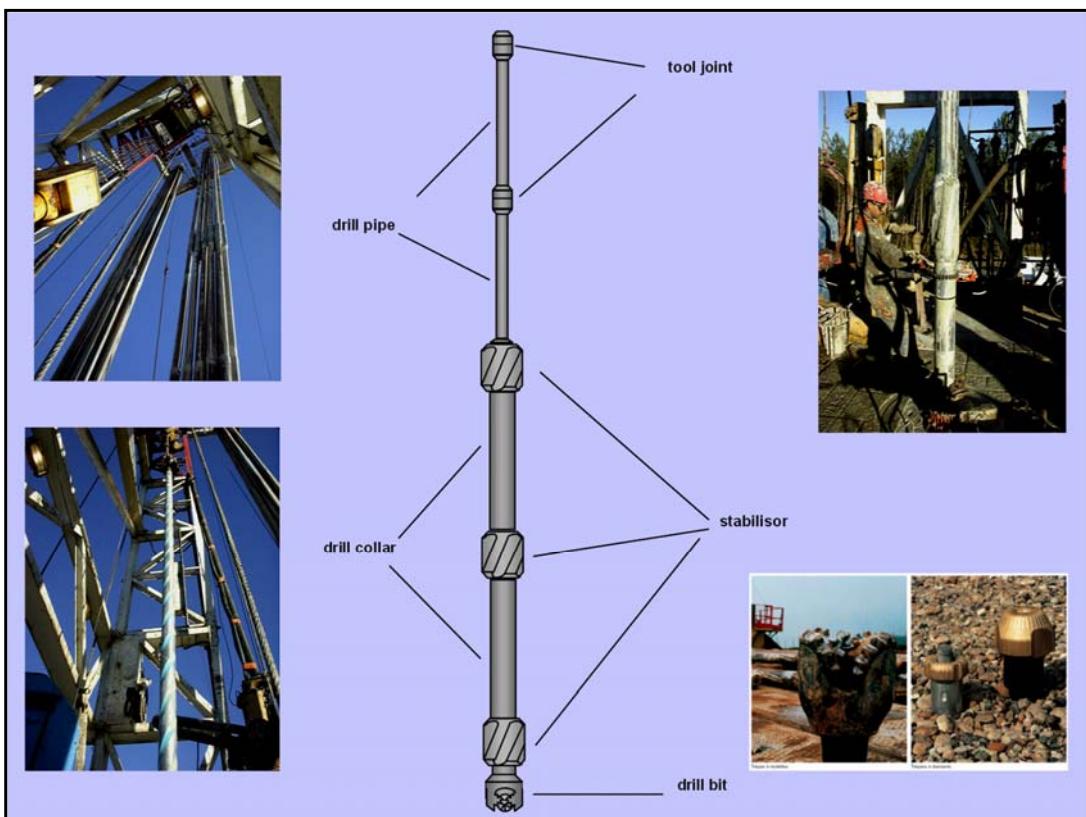


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Drill string & drill bits

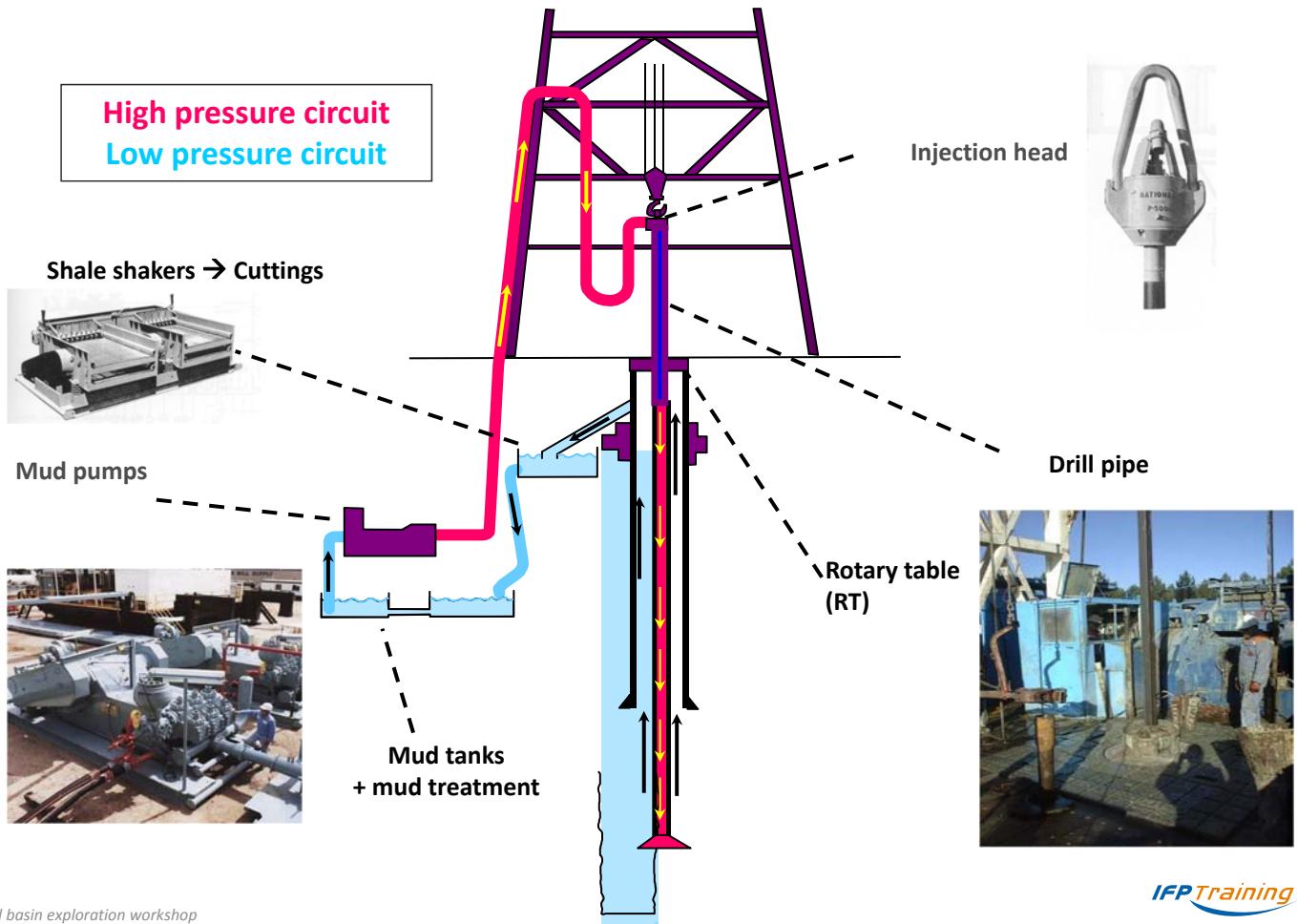


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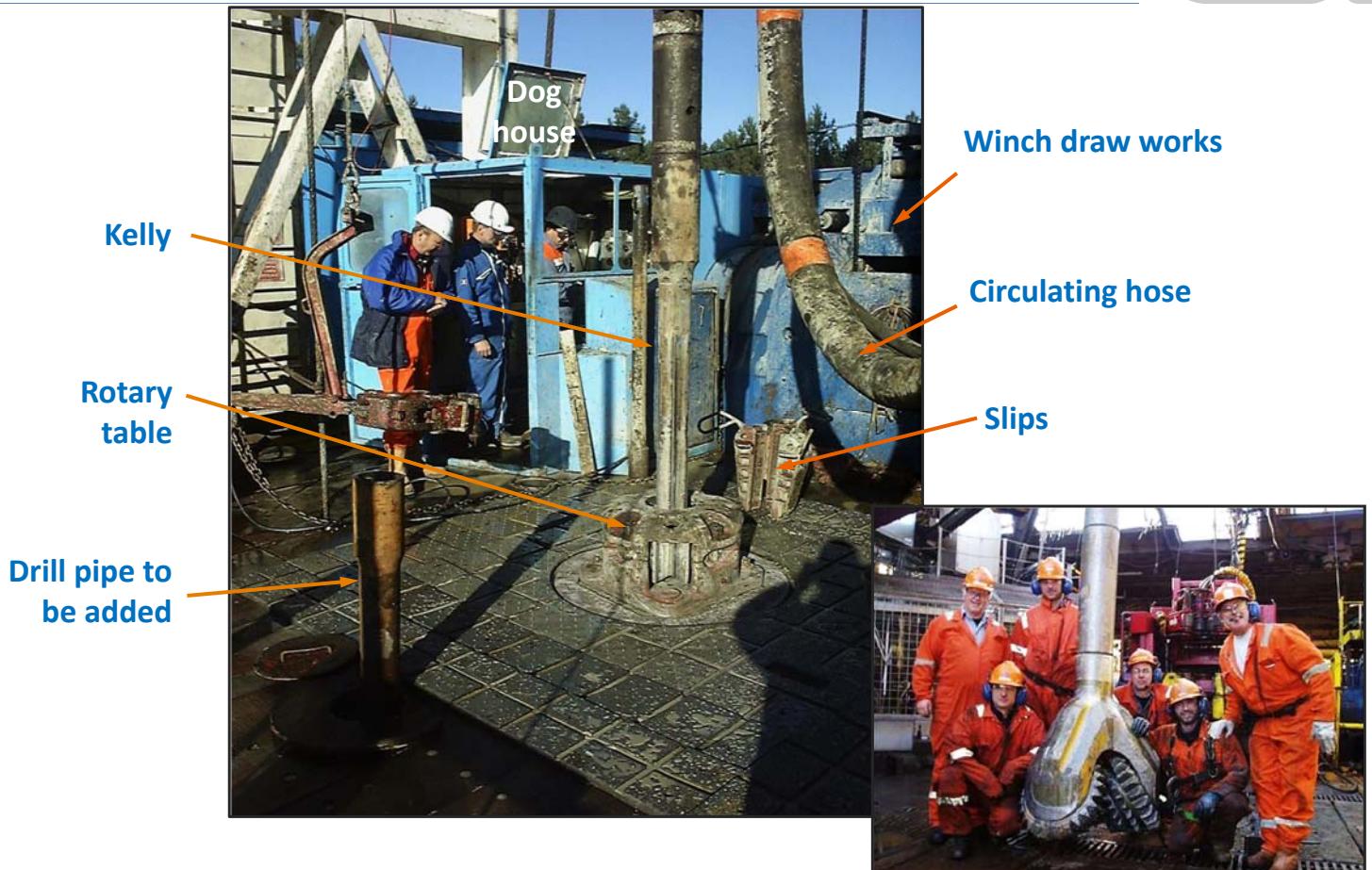
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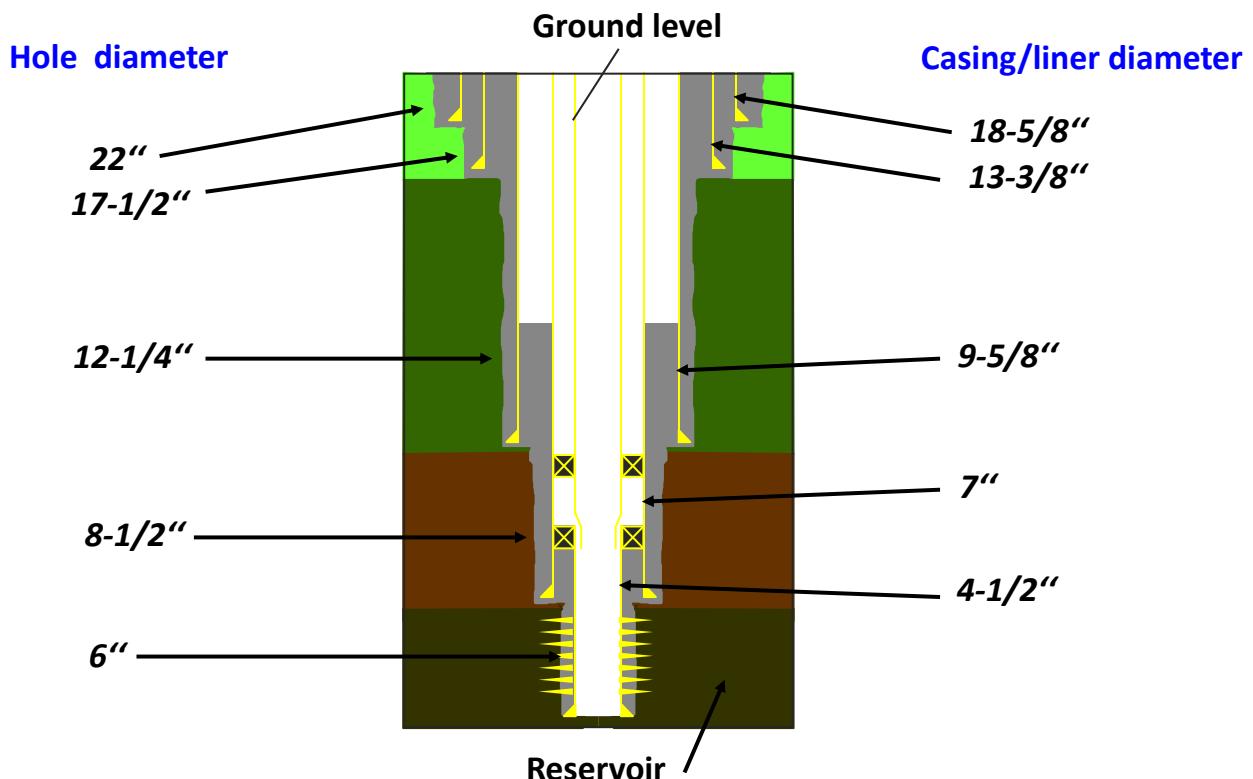
Mud circuit - Cuttings collection



Drill floor



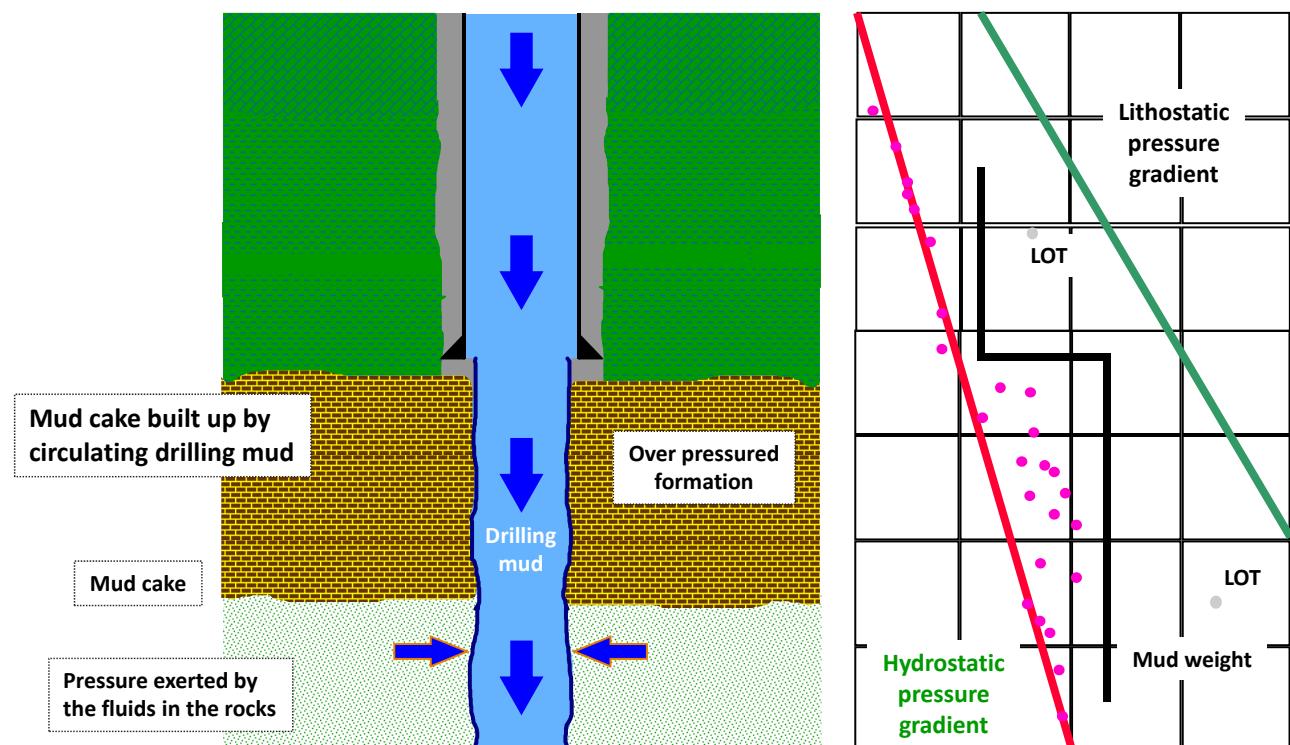
Bore-hole and casing diameters



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Mud pressure in a well

Reservoir pressure and mud weight

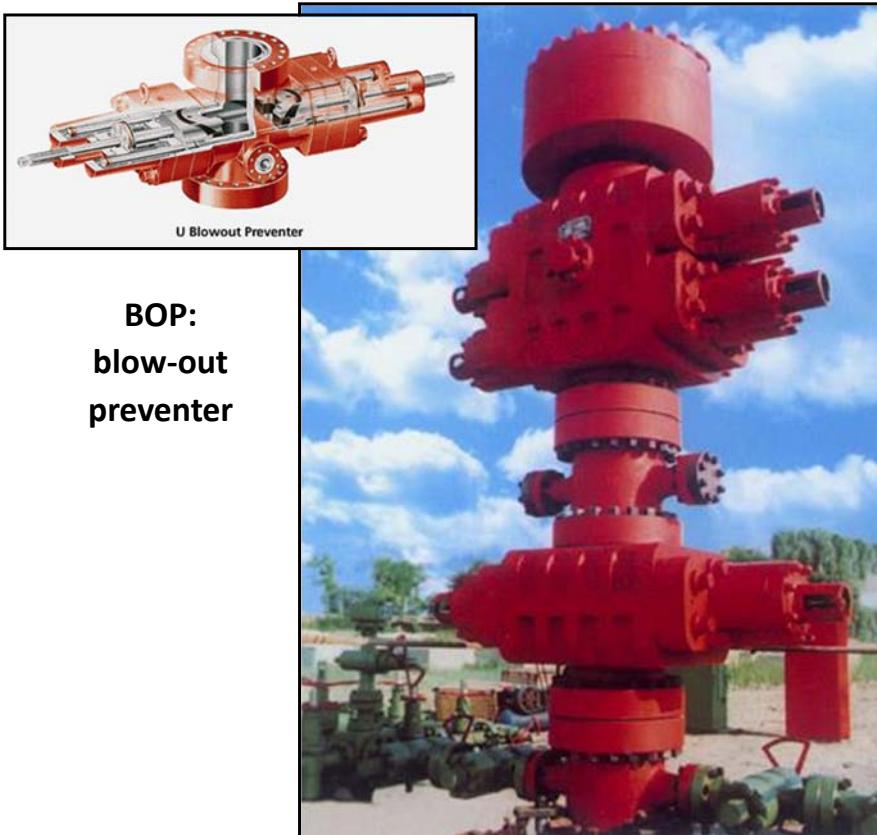


► Operations geology

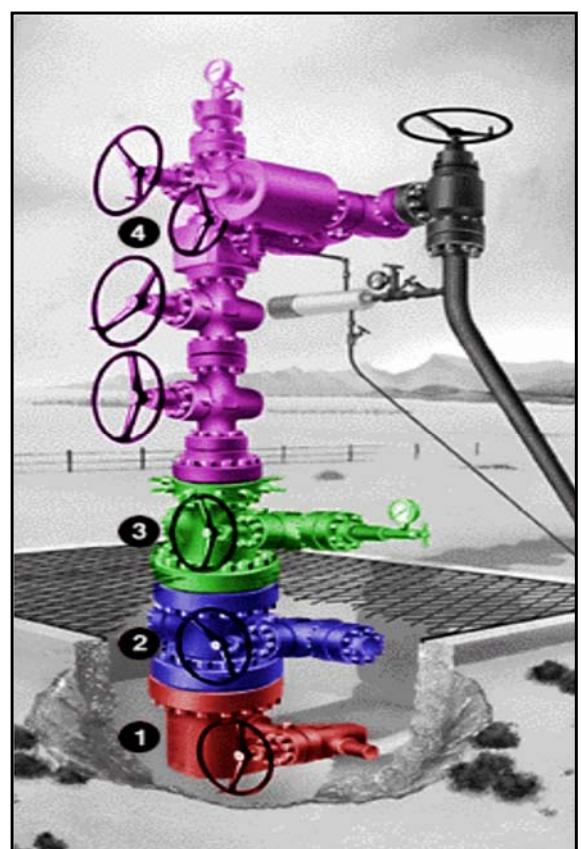
- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
- Logging
 - Mud logging
 - Wireline logging
 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Completion: well head equipment

Wellhead: BOP and X-mas tree



BOP:
blow-out
preventer



Blow-out prevention

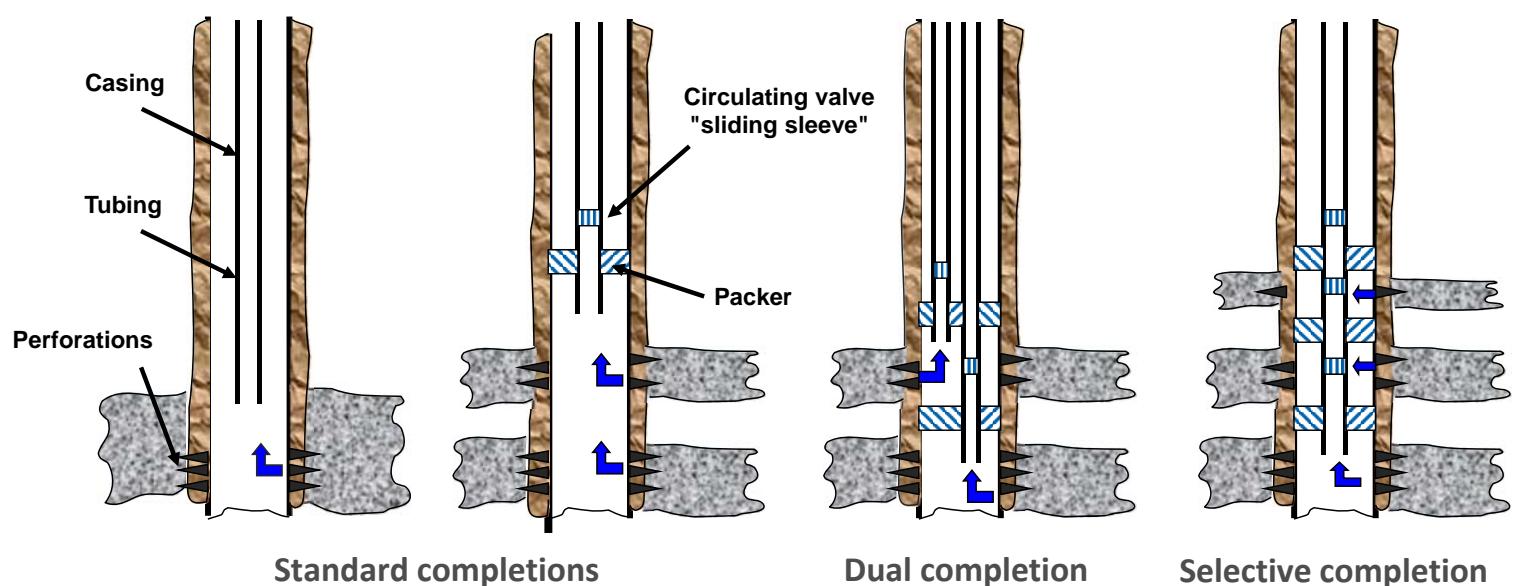


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Well completion types



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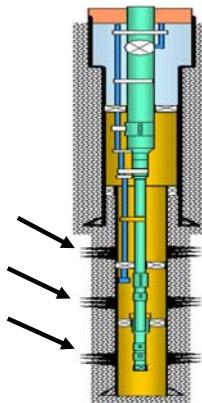
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Perforations

► Perforations with overbalanced pressure before running completion:

- Large multidirectional cannons
- Can damage the reservoir



► Perforations with underbalanced pressure and completion in place (TCP):

- Minimize reservoir damage
- Smaller cannons



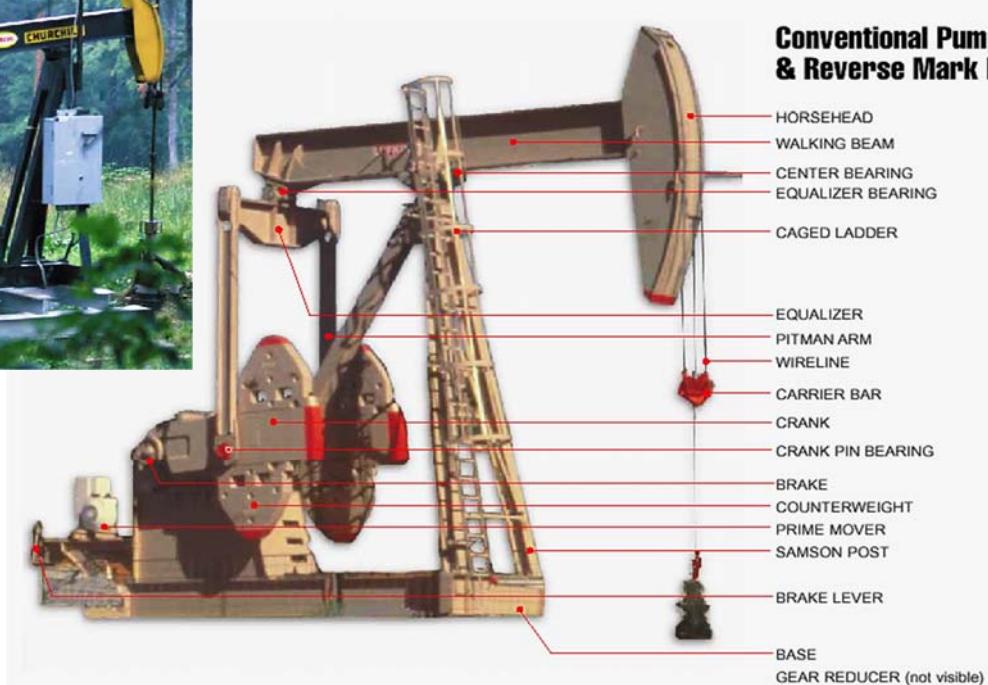
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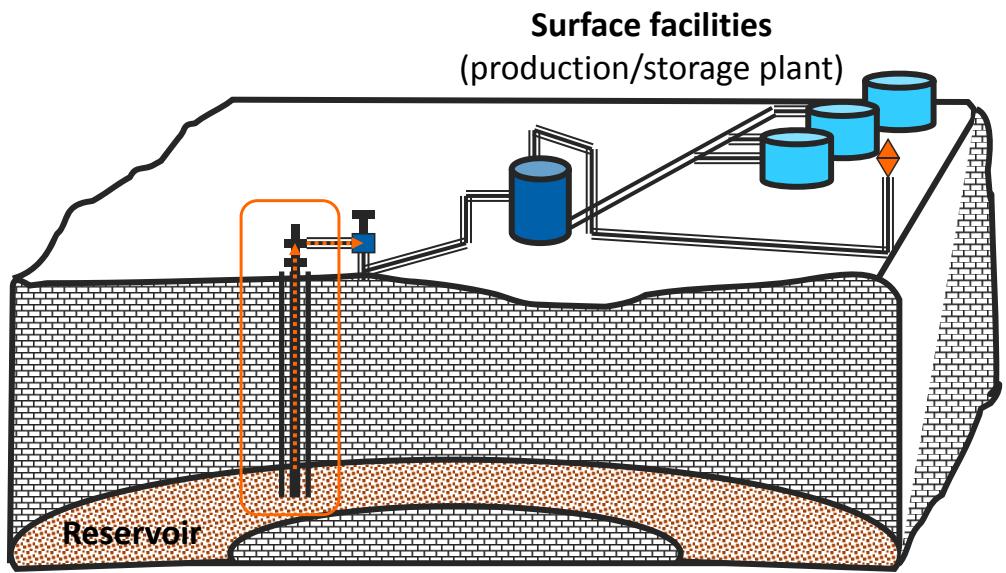
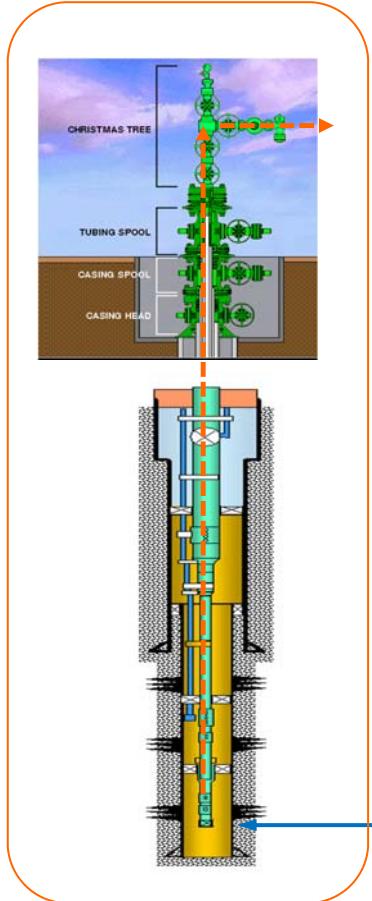
231

Well activation

Sucker road (« horse-head ») pump



Completion and production



► Operations geology

- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
- Logging
 - Mud logging
 - Wireline logging
 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Well logging: definitions

Well monitoring

- ▶ Recording of one parameter (or more) versus a specific criterium or another precise parameter
- ▶ The response of this measurement is represented with a continuous curve (log)
- ▶ Three types of logs:
 - Instantaneous (mud logs): recording of all parameters related to the well (mechanical, physical, chemical, geological,...) during the drilling phase – i.e. well monitoring
 - Lagged (wireline logs): recording of formations characteristics after the drilling phase, in the borehole, with electrical tools
 - MWD/LWD: measurement/logging while drilling record characteristics of drilled formations, like wireline logs, but in real time (tools on drilling string)

Wellsite geologist's cabin



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Mud logging unit

Geology side



Data management side

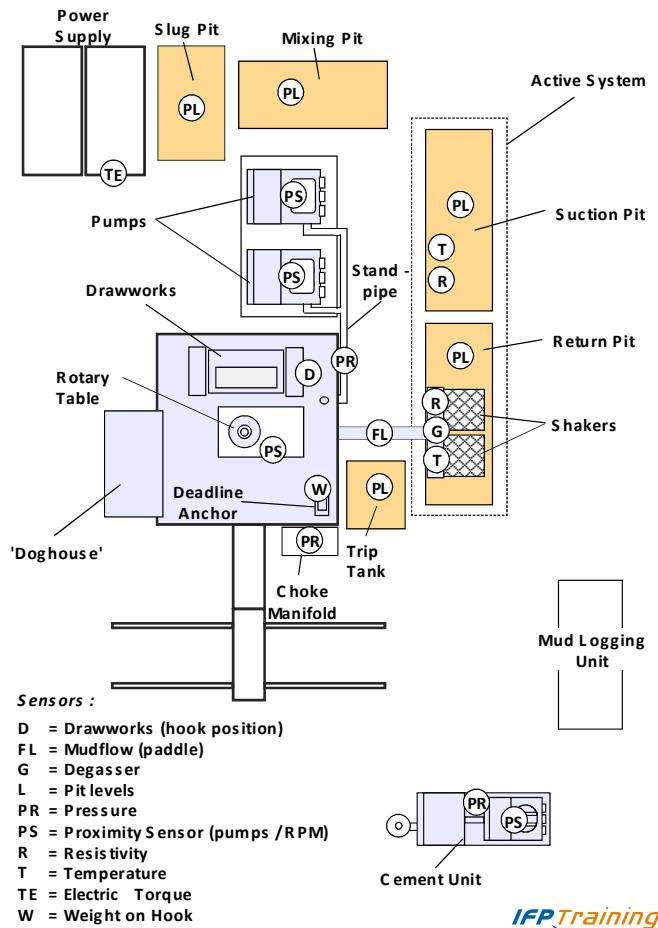
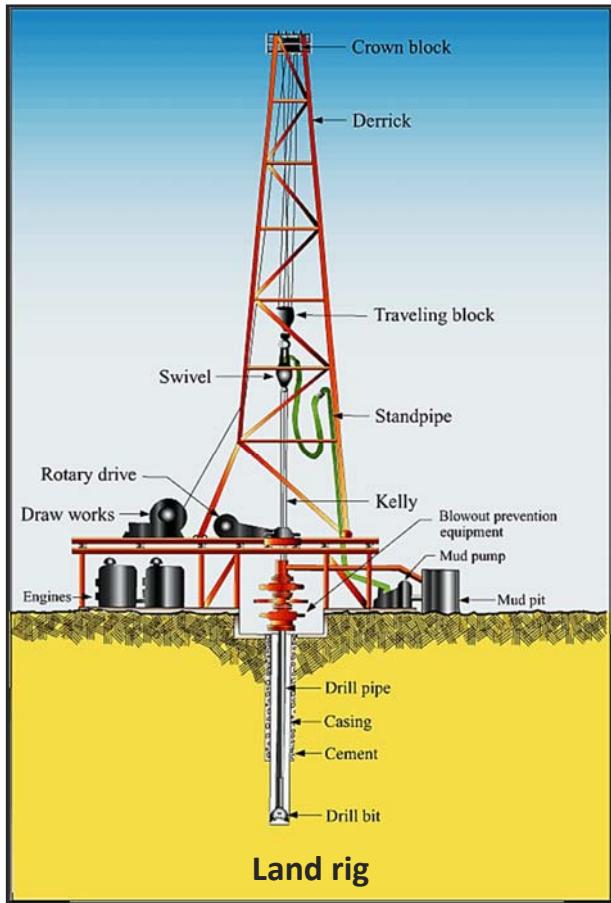


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Sensors on rig



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Instantaneous parameter monitoring

- ▶ Hook height
- ▶ Weight on hook (WOH)
- ▶ RPM
- ▶ Torque
- ▶ Injection pressure (SPP)
- ▶ Well head pressure (annular pressure)
- ▶ Pump strokes
- ▶ Mud pit level
- ▶ Mud parameters (*see next slide*)



► Gas in mud

- Hydrocarbons: C₁ → C₅
- Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S)
- CO₂ (optional)
- H₂ (optional)

► Mud parameters out

- Density
- Temperature
- Conductivity
- Mud flow out

► Formation

- Lithology (cuttings %)
- Calcimetry

Mud functions

► Multiple

- Clean the well
- Keep cuttings in suspension
- Lubricate the bit
- Maintain the walls of the well
- Prevent eruption (kick off)

► Characteristics of the mud

- Mud = fluid (water, oil) + solid particles
- Dynamic equilibrium at well/formation interface
- Mud Pressure > Formation Pressure

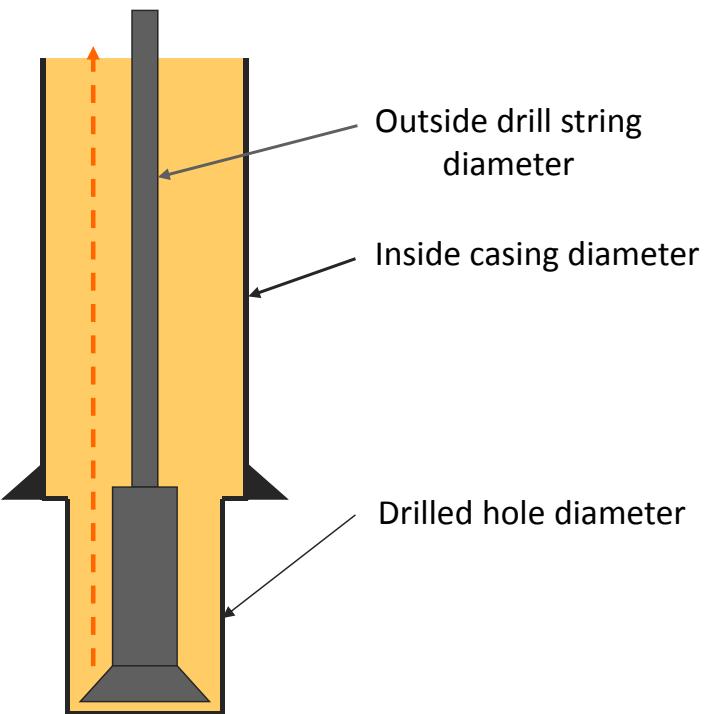
► Phenomenon of invasion (flushing) in reservoirs

- Invasion: mud filtrate in the formation's porous network
- Accumulation of particles in front of the reservoir → mud cake

Mud - Cuttings lag-time

Lagtime = elapsed time for the mud to reach surface from well bottom

- ▶ Lagtime
 - cuttings rising from formation to surface
- ▶ Cuttings mix - main causes:
 - Recycling of finest particles
 - Improper cleaning of mud pit
 - Quality (accuracy) of sampling
 - Preparation, handling of samples
- ▶ Sampling rate (frequency)
- ▶ Sample volume
- ▶ Special cases
 - Presence of plugging agents
 - Drilling fluid: foam or air



$$\text{Lagtime} = \text{Annular volume (m}^3\text{)} / \text{Pump output (m}^3/\text{min.})$$

Cuttings - Collection on shale shakers

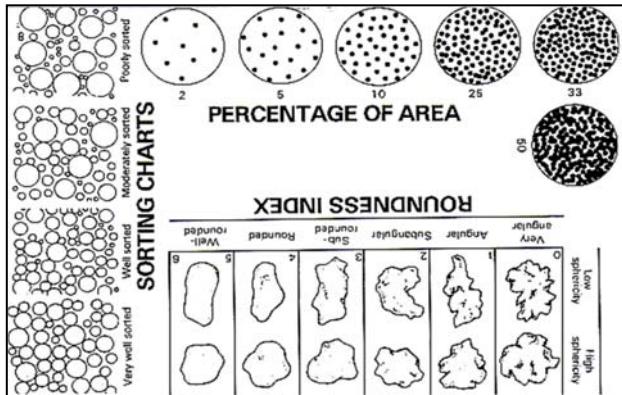


Spot sampling

Standard sampling



Cuttings - Description



Example of description:

SANDSTONE, gray-brown, friable, medium-coarse grained, sub-rounded, moderately sorted, poor calcareous cement, glauconitic, fair yellowish direct fluorescence, strong yellow cut fluorescence.



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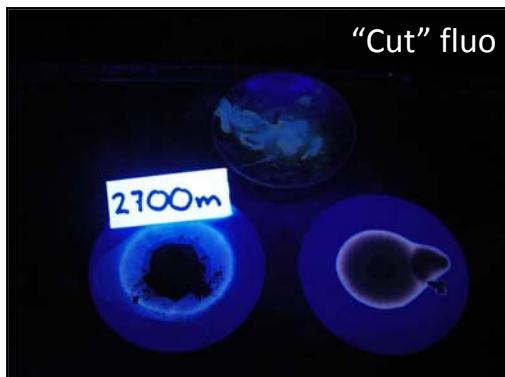
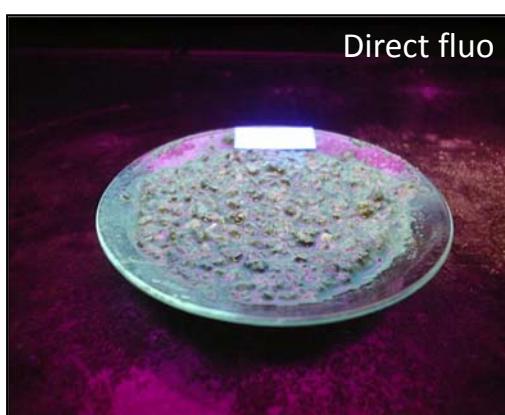
Oil shows detection

► Direct or « cut » fluorescence

- Presence of hydrocarbons
- Active (gas or liquids)
- Fossil (bitumen or asphalt)

► False fluorescence

- Drilling oil (lubrication)
- Exhaust gas (engines)
- Contaminated mud or equipment (tanks, pits, ...)



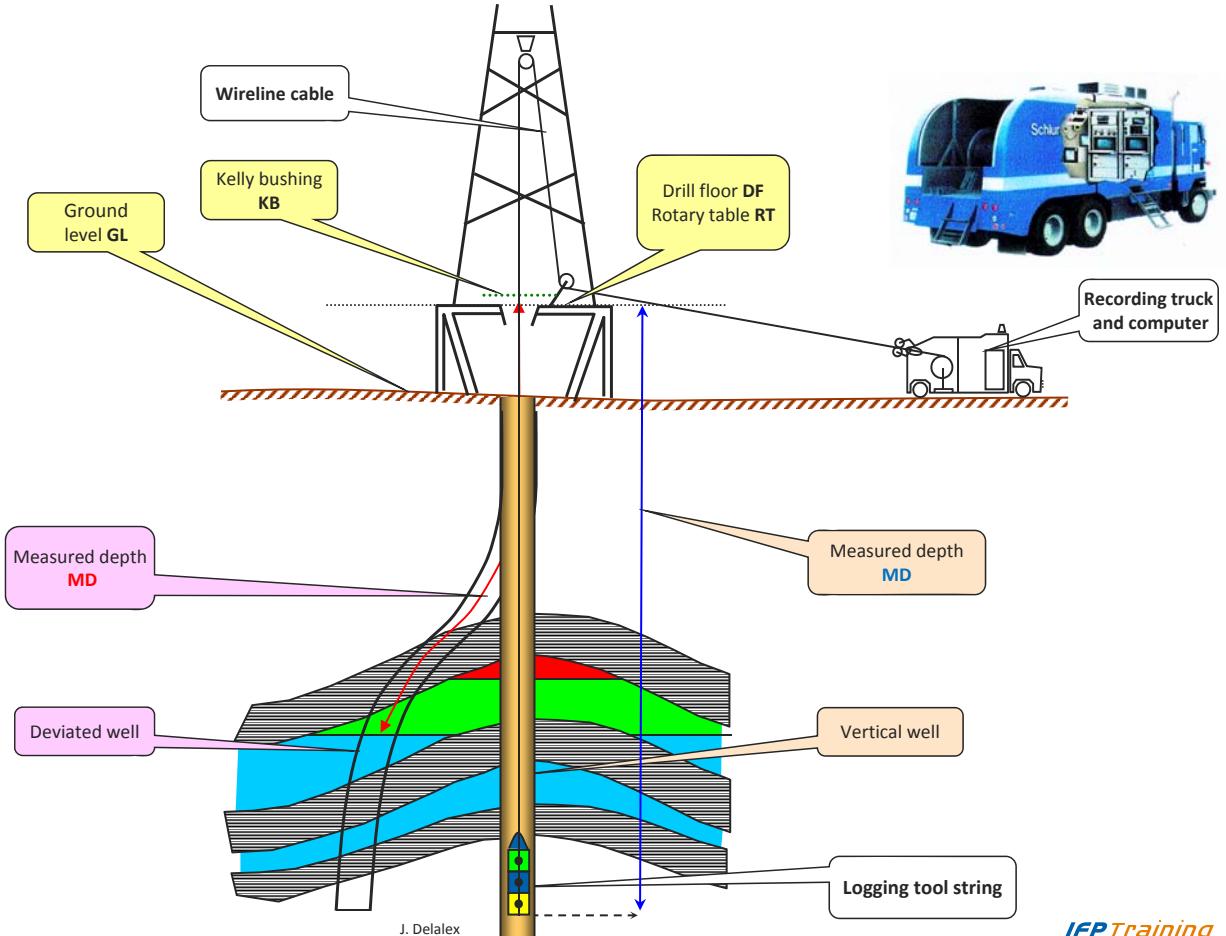
► Operations geology

- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
- Logging
 - Mud logging
 - Wireline logging
 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Wireline logging

- Recording of **physical phenomena** linked with petrophysical characteristics of drilled formations and fluids in place.
- Recording **after the drilling phase**, every 15 cm down to 3 cm (1 foot > 1 inch)
- Logs provide a **continuous image** of the subsurface, in situ, detailed information but limited to the wellbore neighborhood (less than 1 m diameter around the hole)
- **Three types of logs:**
 - Well logs for geologists & geophysicists for formation and fluid evaluation and characterization and quantification
 - Well logs for drillers that give technical information (e.g. cementation quality, sticking point detection for fishing, etc.)
 - Well logs for production engineers to analyze all phenomena linked to the fluids and their displacement

Onshore wireline logging

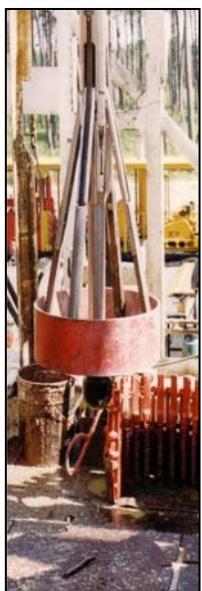


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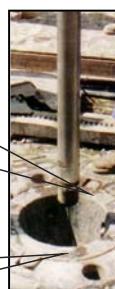
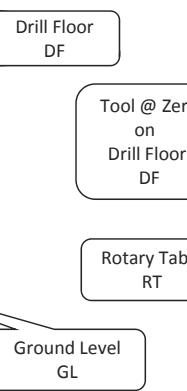
Wireline logging operations



Caliper calibration



Rig site and logging truck



String bottom



Kelly Bushing KB
Rotating during drilling



Depth measurement

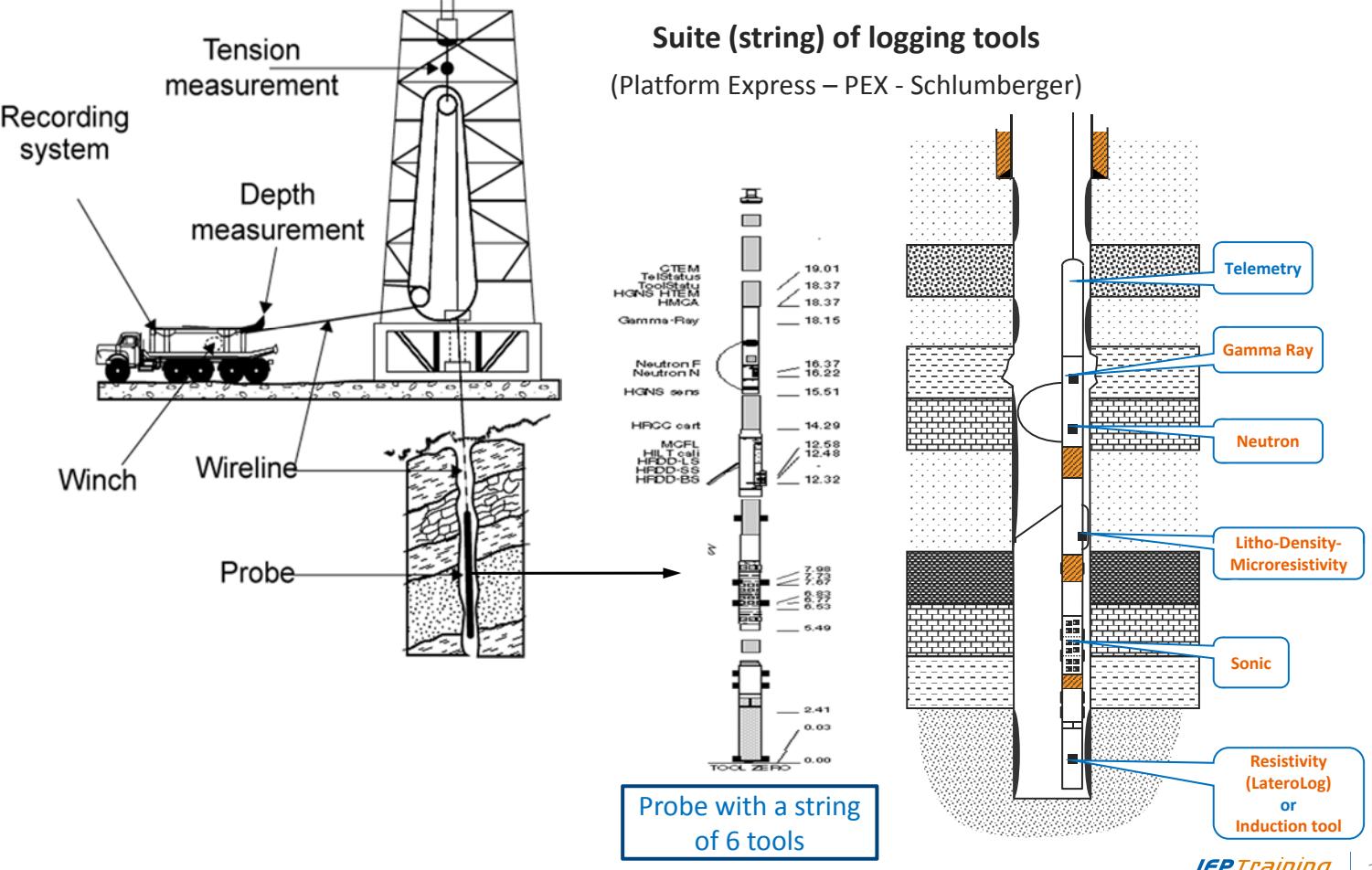


Logging tool string

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Tool combinations (strings)

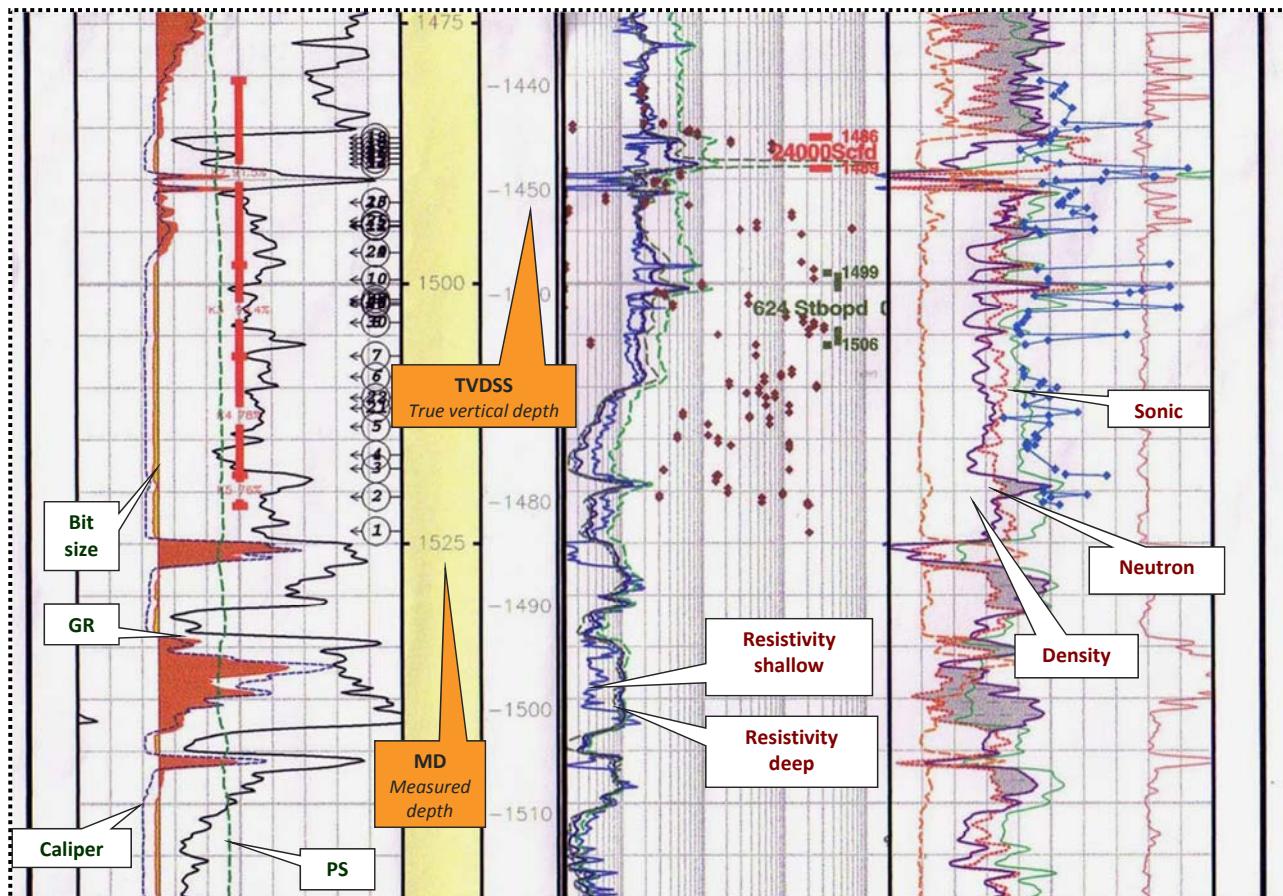


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Raw wireline log curves



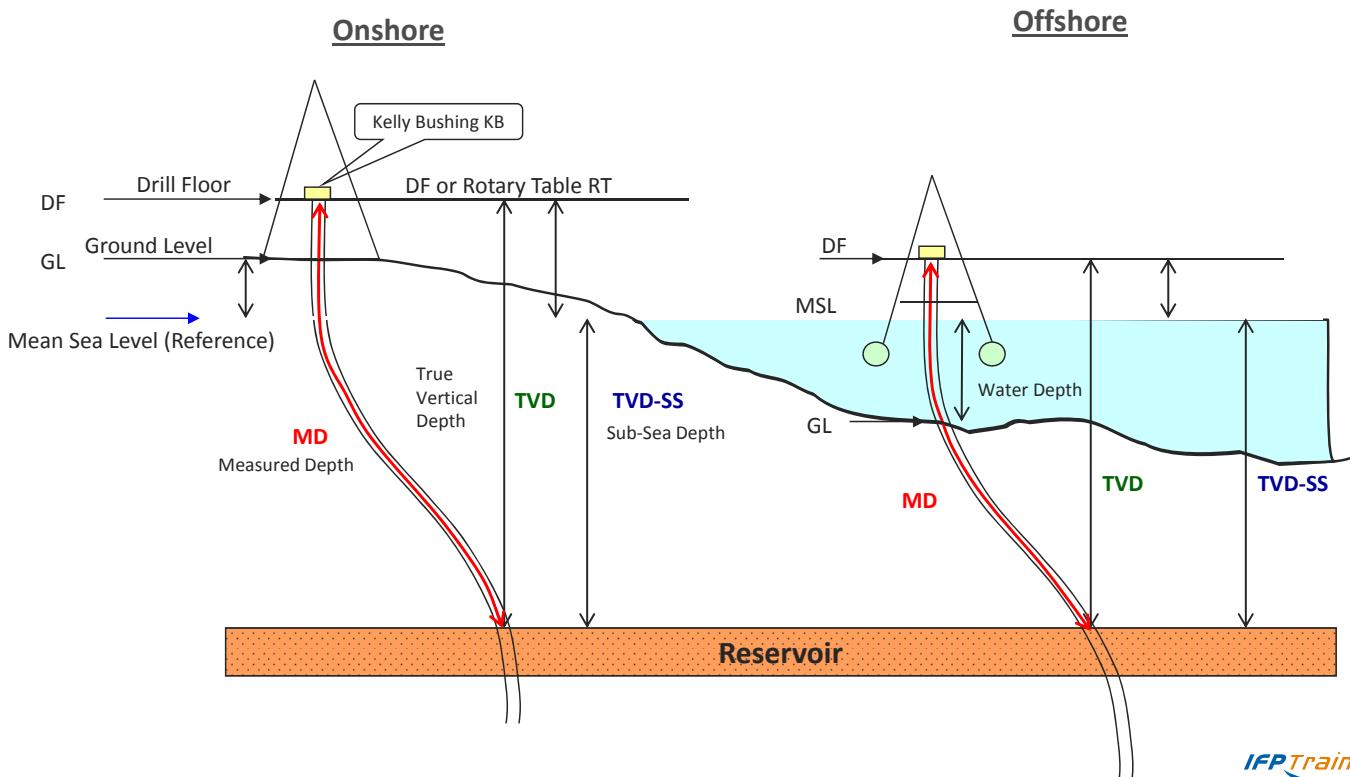
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Depths and references

MD – TVD – TVDSS – KB – RT – DF – MSL



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Most commonly used wireline logs

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| ▶ CALIPER
quality control of other logs: diameter, volume, mudcake, ... | Well-bore diameter |
| ▶ GAMMA RAY (GR)
stratigraphy, shaliness, reservoirs, correlations, ... | Natural radioactivity |
| ▶ SPONTANEOUS POTENTIAL (SP)
stratigraphy, shaliness, reservoirs, correlations, water resistivity, ... | Natural currents |
| ▶ RESISTIVITY (Laterolog, Induction, Microlog,...)
hydrocarbons, saturations, fluid invasion, ... | Activated currents |
| ▶ NEUTRON (NPHI)
porosity, lithology, oil/gas, ... | Activated radioactivity |
| ▶ DENSITY (RHOB)
lithology, porosity, oil/gas, ... | Activated radioactivity |
| ▶ SONIC (DT)
lithology, porosity, fluids, ... | Transit time |
| ▶ DIPMETER
structural deformation, geometry, ... | Layer dip & boundaries |
| ▶ NMR | |
| ▶ etc. | |

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► Natural phenomena recording

- Well diameter
- Natural radioactivity
- Formation temperature

Caliper
Gamma Ray
Temperature

► Artificially stimulated phenomena recording

- Formation resistivity
- Resistivity
- Formation lithology & porosity

Induction → Fluid
Neutron, Density, Sonic → Rock

► Tools

- Source/receiver spacing
 - Depth of investigation
 - Vertical resolution
- Centered in borehole or pressed against wellbore (pad)

→ Determination of both reservoir zones and fluid content

- Invasion (mud cake detection)
- Identification of fluids and respective saturations

Caliper

► Measures effective diameter of borehole

- Two opposite arms
- Four arms, two by two in diagonal

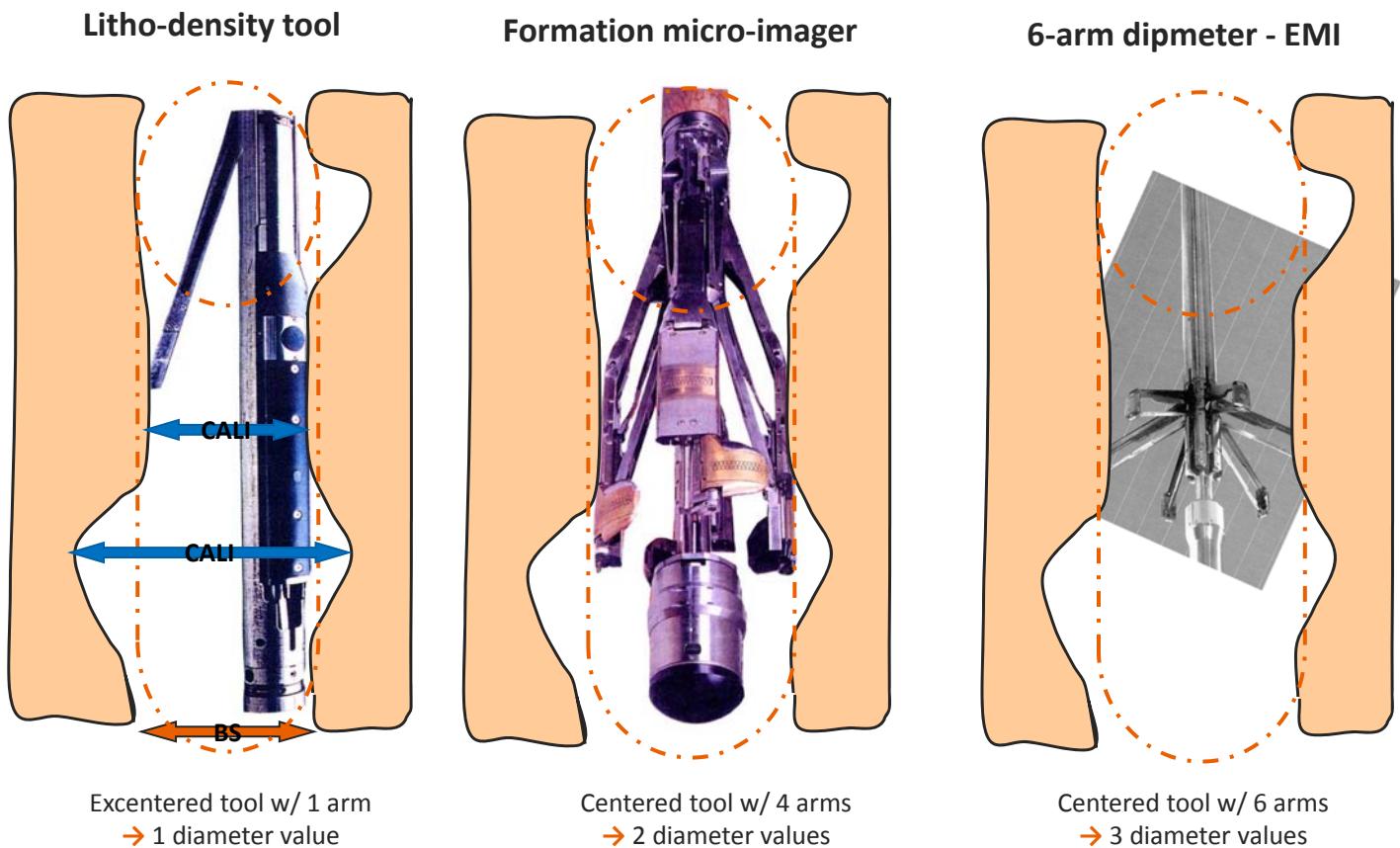
► Measurement in constant drilling phase

- Comparison with bit size
- Fluctuates around bit size values

► Applications

- Potential mud cake location
- Caves, irregularities in borehole walls

Types of calipers

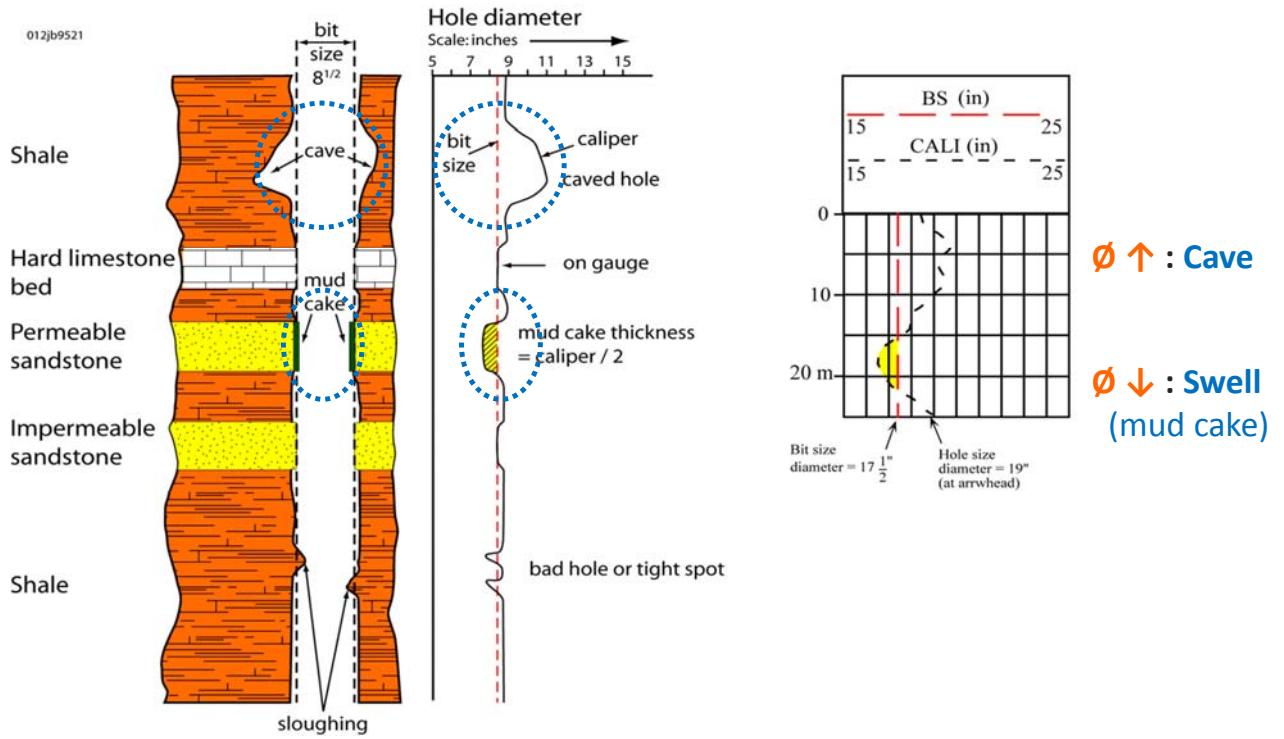


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Caliper results



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► Measures natural radioactivity in rocks

- Radioactive elements : Thorium, Potassium, Uranium
- Global GR or Spectral GR

► Representation on log

- API unit : from 0 to 100 or 150
- Recording on first track, linear scale
- Increasing on the right

► Applications

- Shales layers, shales content in reservoir
- Correlation between wells,
- Sedimentary bed boundaries ...

GR - Natural radioactivity

► K: Potassium

- Shales (illites)
- Potassic evaporites
- Potassic feldspars
- Micas
- Minerals with K
- Mud with KCl

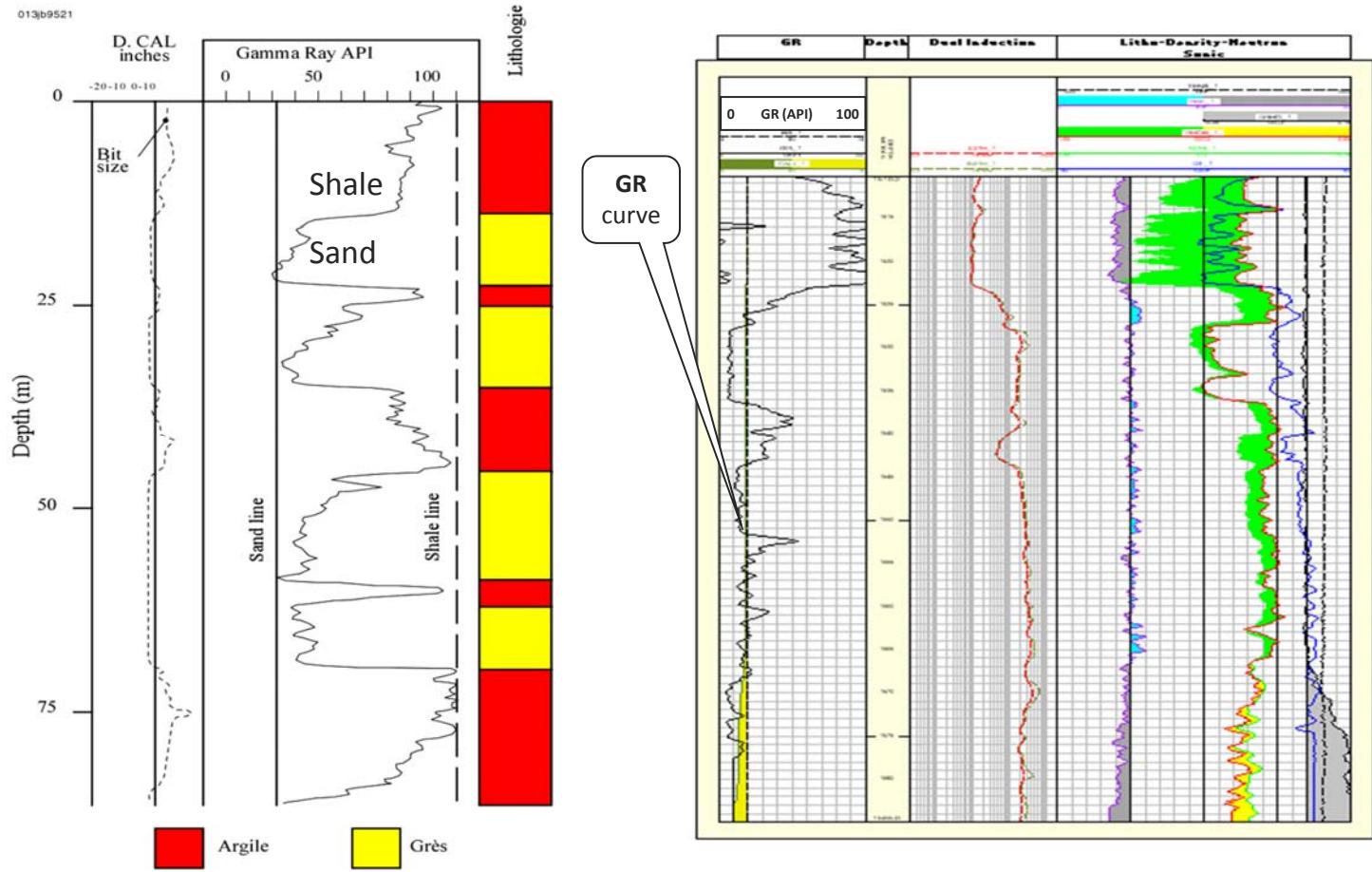
► Th: Thorium

- Detritic shales
- Minerals with Th (heavy minerals)

► U: Uranium

- Shales (with organic matter)
- Organic matter
- Minerals with U

Example of GR log



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Neutron tool

► Measures number of hydrogen nuclei in formation

- Not located in the “conventional matrix” for reservoir
 - Sandstone, Limestone, Dolomite
- Associated with fluids in porosity for reservoir formations
- Gives an “apparent porosity”

► Representation on log

- Porosity unit (pu): from 0 to 60 or -15 to +45
- Recording on linear scale
- Increasing to the left

► Applications

- Fluid content
- Shale volume
- Computation of porosity (true porosity in reservoir formation)

► Measures the global density of a formation

- Compton effect (attenuation of gamma rays in formations)
- Gives “apparent porosity”

► Representation on log

- Density unit: g/cc
- Recording on linear scale
- Increasing to the right

► Applications

- Fluid content
- Shale volume
- Computation of porosity (true porosity in reservoir formation)

► Measures propagation of acoustic waves in the formation

- Seismic refraction
- Time delay in the formation between a reference spacing (Δt)
- Provides interval velocities

► Representation on log

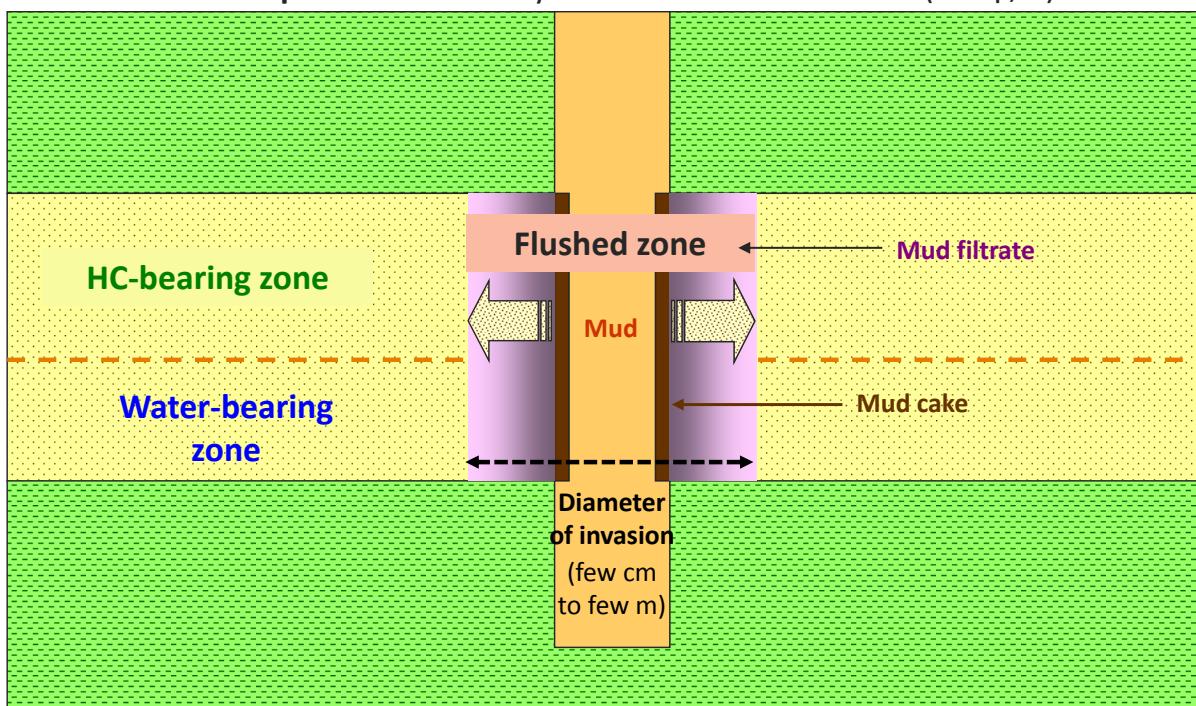
- Unit: microsecond/feet
- Recording on third track, linear scale
- Increasing to the right

► Applications

- Identification of lithologies
- Computation of porosity (true porosity in reservoir formation)
- Secondary porosity

Formation invasion by mud filtrate (reservoir flushing)

Invasion phenomenon only occurs in reservoir zones (i.e. ϕ , K)



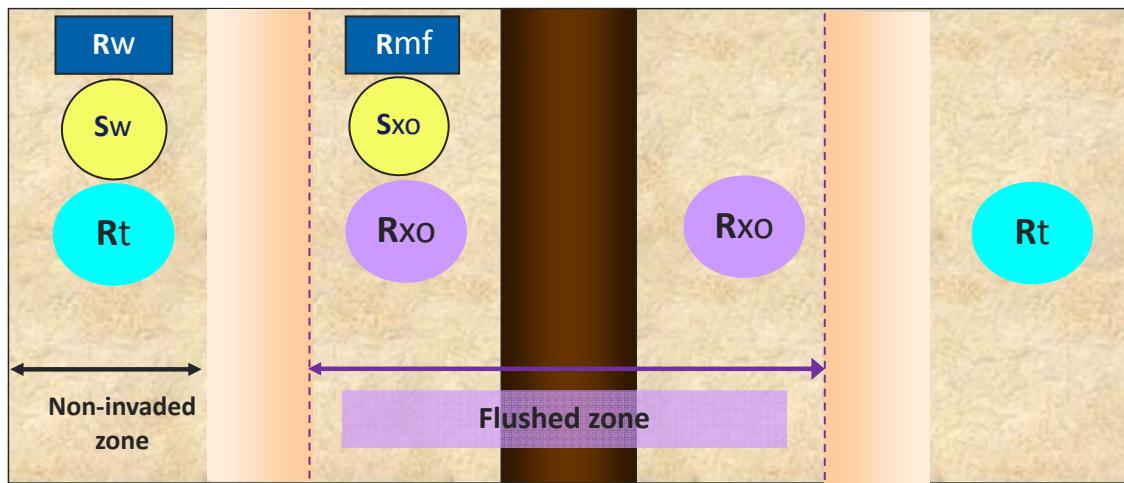
The mud filtrate (liquid) penetrates porous & permeable formations (i.e. reservoirs) until the cake (solid) gets thick enough to prevent further flushing (i.e. invasion)

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Resistivity and invasion



Rmf = Resistivity of mud filtrate

Rw = Resistivity of water in non-invaded (virgin) zone

Rxo = Resistivity of flushed zone

Rt = True resistivity of uninvaded zone

Sw = Water saturation

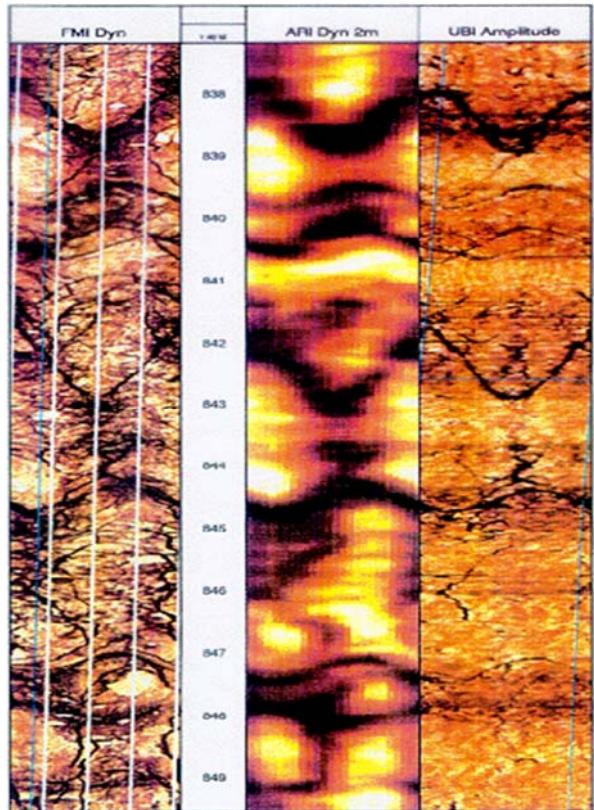
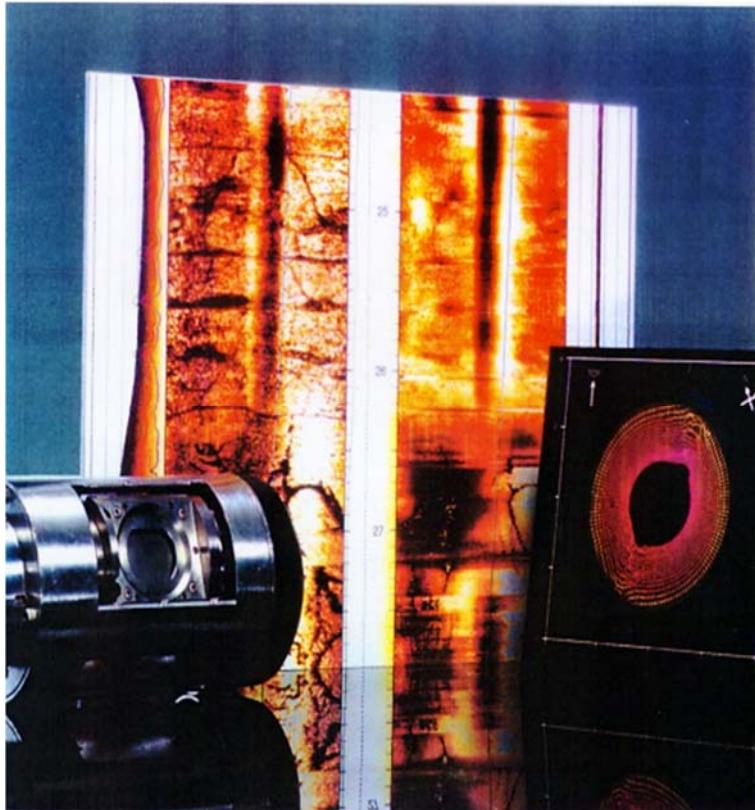
Sxo = Mud filtrate saturation in flushed zone

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Borehole imaging (BHI)



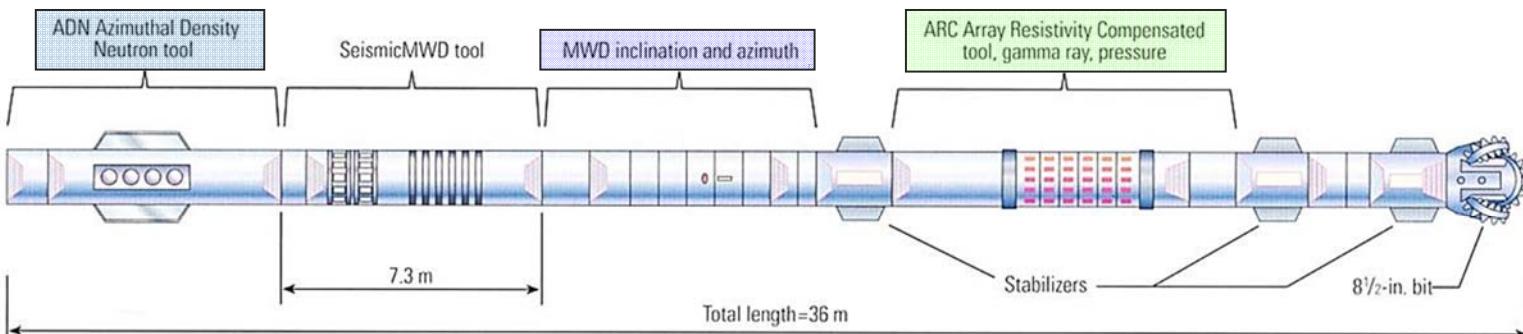
Ultrasonic image: direct, visual layer information (lithology, boundaries and fractures)

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Logging while drilling (LWD)



Bottomhole assembly. Other LWD tools, including the ADN Azimuthal Density Neutron tool and the ARC Array Resistivity Compensated tool, accompanied the SeismicMWD tool.

From Schlumberger Oilfield Review

► Operations geology

- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
- Logging
 - Mud logging
 - Wireline logging
 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Archie's law - Formation factor (F)

■ Archie's formula

- In the water zone: $S_w = 1$ $R_t = \frac{a}{\Phi^m} \cdot R_w \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_w = R_t \cdot \frac{\Phi^m}{a}$

$$F = \frac{a}{\phi^m}$$

The proportionality factor **F** is called **Formation Resistivity Factor**. It is the ratio of resistivity (R_o) of a sample with 100% water to water resistivity (R_w). It depends on lithology and on rock porosity (determined in lab)

The resistivity R_o is proportional to the water resistivity R_w

$$R_o = F \cdot R_w \quad \Rightarrow \quad F = R_o / R_w$$

- In the hydrocarbon zone

$$R_t = \frac{a}{\Phi^m} \cdot \frac{R_w}{S_w^n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_w = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{\phi^m} \frac{R_w}{R_t}}$$

a , m , n are constants values:

m and n are determined in petrophysical laboratory

Usually a = 1 , m = 2, n= 2

● Sandstones: a = 0.81 ; m = n = 2

● Carbonates: a = 1 ; m = n = 2

(m varies: 1.3 < m < 2.5)

Archie's formula

In the hydrocarbon zone

- Archie formula in uninvaded (non-flushed or «virgin») zone

$$R_t = \frac{a}{\Phi^m} \cdot \frac{R_w}{S_w^n} \iff S_w = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{\phi^m} \frac{R_w}{R_t}} \iff S_{hc} = 1 - S_w$$

Hydrocarbon Saturation

- Archie formula in flushed zone:

$$R_{xo} = \frac{a}{\Phi^m} \cdot \frac{R_{mf}}{S_{xo}^n} \iff S_{xo} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{\phi^m} \frac{R_{mf}}{R_{xo}}} \iff S_{hr} = 1 - S_{xo}$$

Residual HC Saturation

- Rt and Rxo values are read on logs

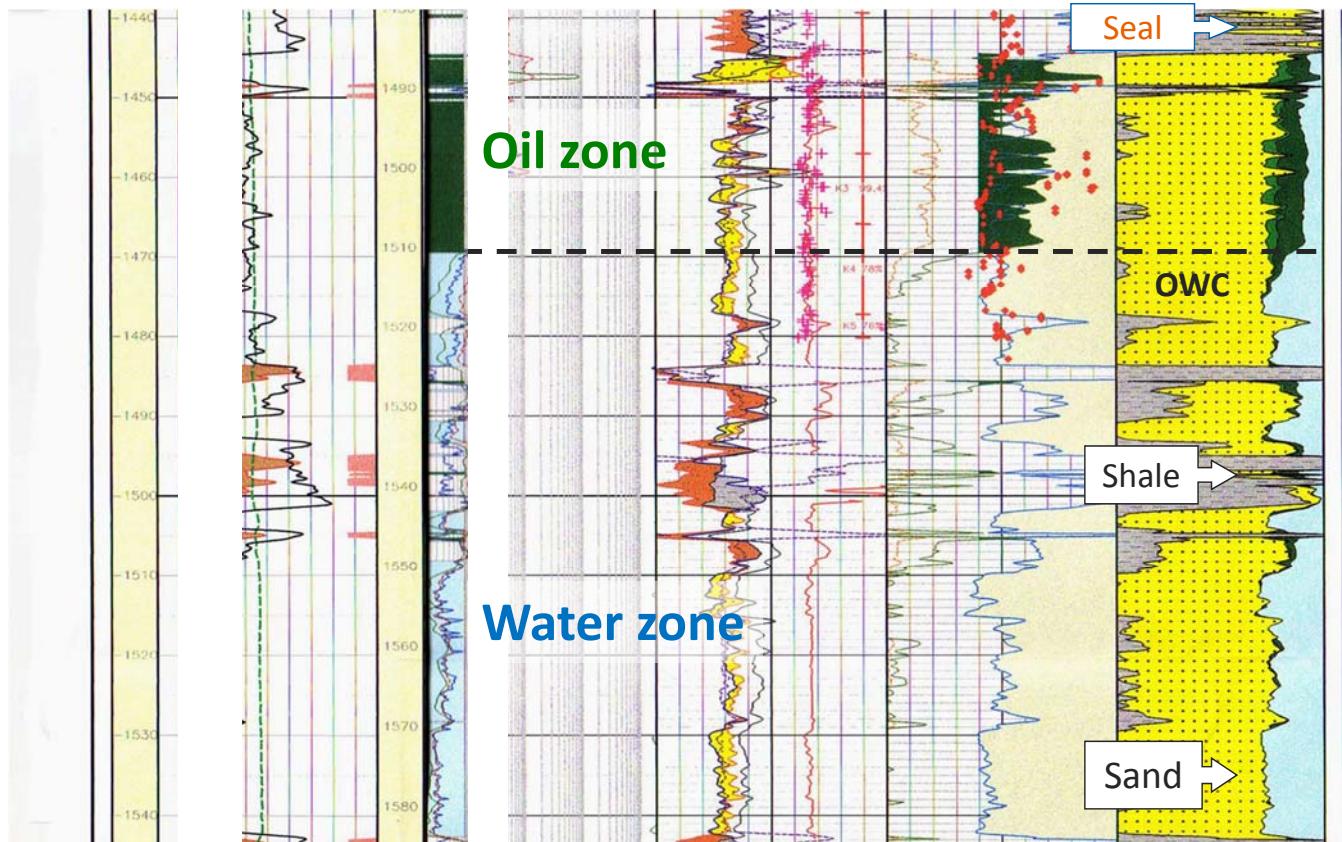
- Rt from Laterolog deep or Induction deep
- Rxo from Microresistivity log
- Rmf = Mud filtrate resistivity

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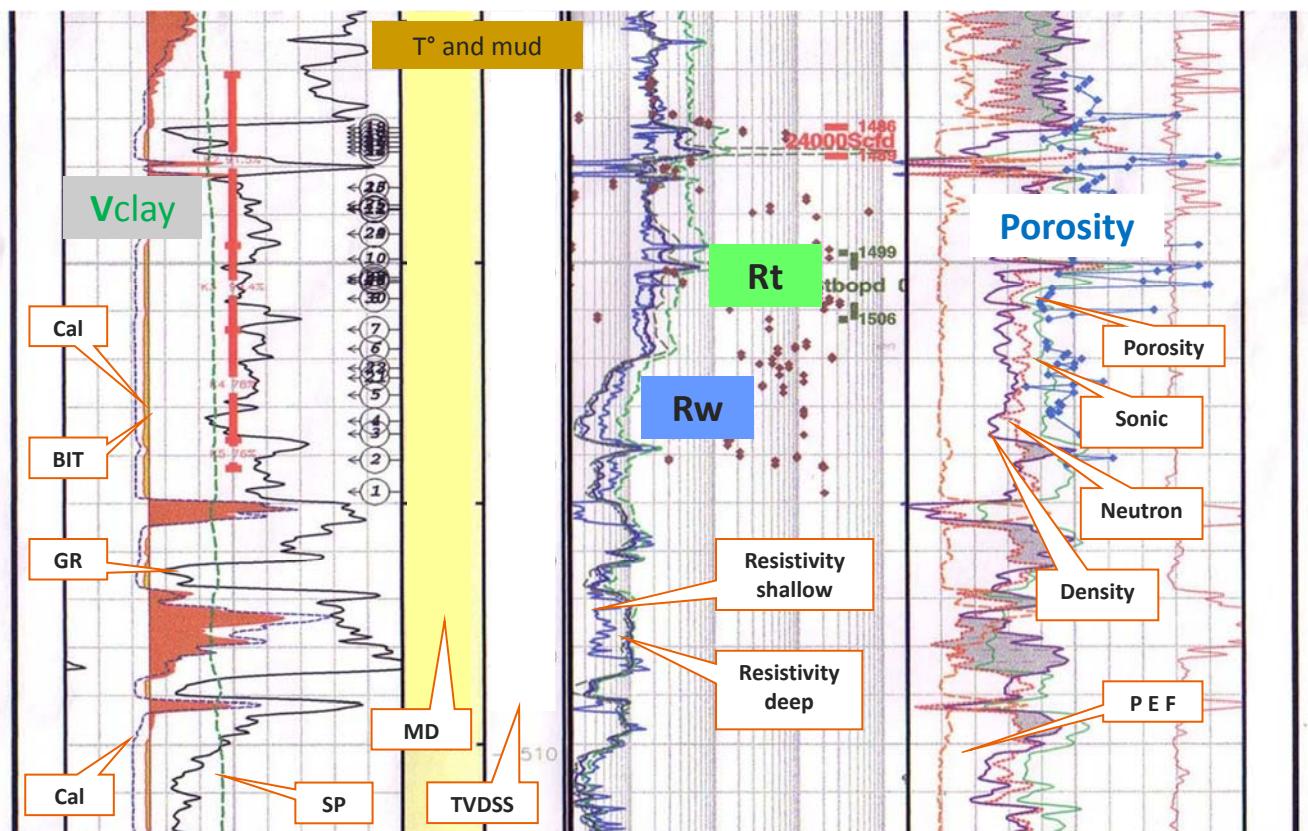
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Well-log automated interpretation software



Calculation of saturation



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Summary - Main tools and specific applications

	Measured parameter	Depth of investigation	Vertical resolution	Application
Caliper	Borehole diameter	none	1 to 3 cm	• Cave and mud-cake / reservoir identification
GR	Natural radioactivity of formation	30 cm	30 cm	• Shale / sand identification
Resistivity	Formation resistivity & conductivity (both rocks & fluids)	3cm to 2 m	A few cm to 1m	• Fluid identification • Fluid saturation
Neutron	• Fast neutrons emission feedback measurement	12 to 25 cm	40 - 60cm	• Formation lithology
Density	• Stimulated gamma ray measurement	~10 cm	10 cm	
Sonic	• Acoustic wave transit time measurement	1 to 12 cm	60 cm	• Reservoir porosity

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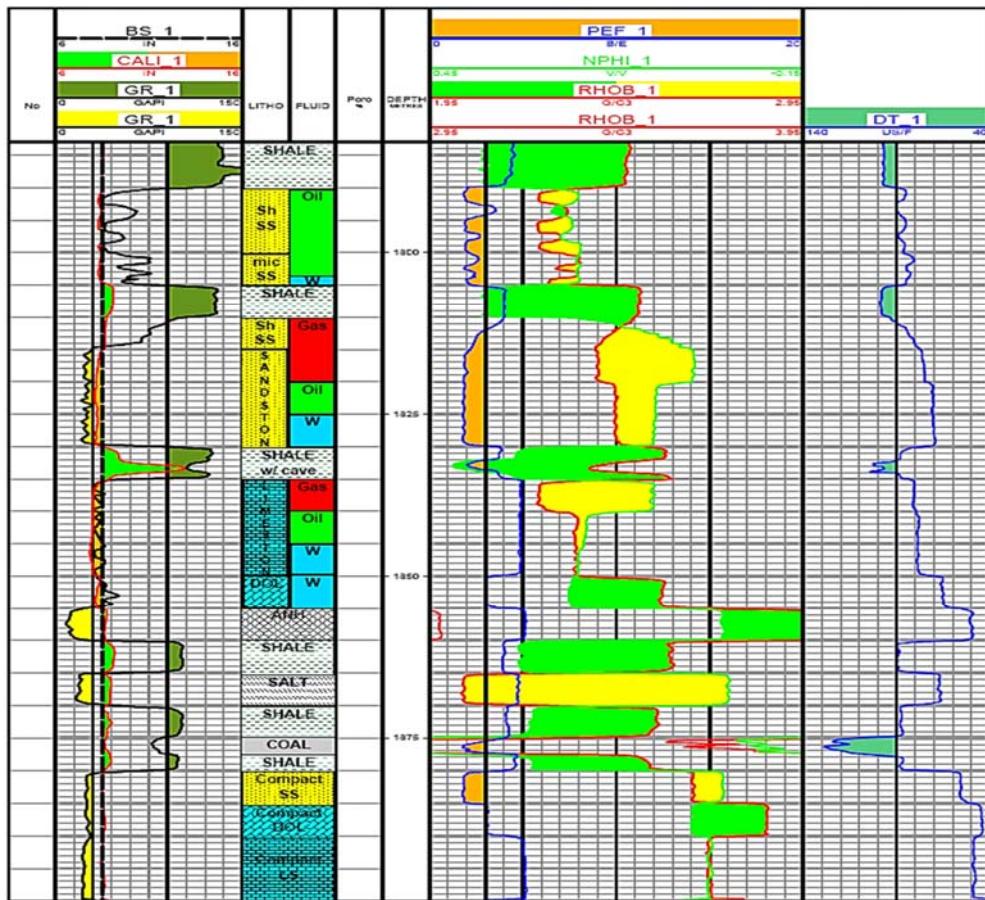
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Examples of typical quick-look analysis results

Rocks
and
Fluids

Shale
Shaly SS + Oil
Micaceous SS
SHALE
Shaly SS + Gas
SS + Gas
SS + Oil
SS + Water
Shale with cave
Limestone + Gas
Limestone + Oil
Limestone + Water
Dolomite + Water
ANHYDRITE
SHALE
SALT
SHALE
COAL
Compact Sandstone
Compact Dolomite
Compact Limestone



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Well data analysis & interpretation – Key points



- ▶ **Borehole logging provides detailed data collection around wellbore**
 - Combination of proximal and distal data (e.g. shallow & deep)
 - Identification of lithological succession in the well
- ▶ **Interpretation of well-log recordings**
 - Identification of reservoir formations
 - Estimation of fluid nature and content (water, oil, gas)
 - Calculation of rock porosity and fluid saturation
 - Comparison with lab's data (petrophysical core analysis)
- ▶ **Correlation between wells**
 - Correlation of key surfaces through the basin
 - Calibration of seismic data (well tying for depth conversion)

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End Day#4

Notes

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Notes

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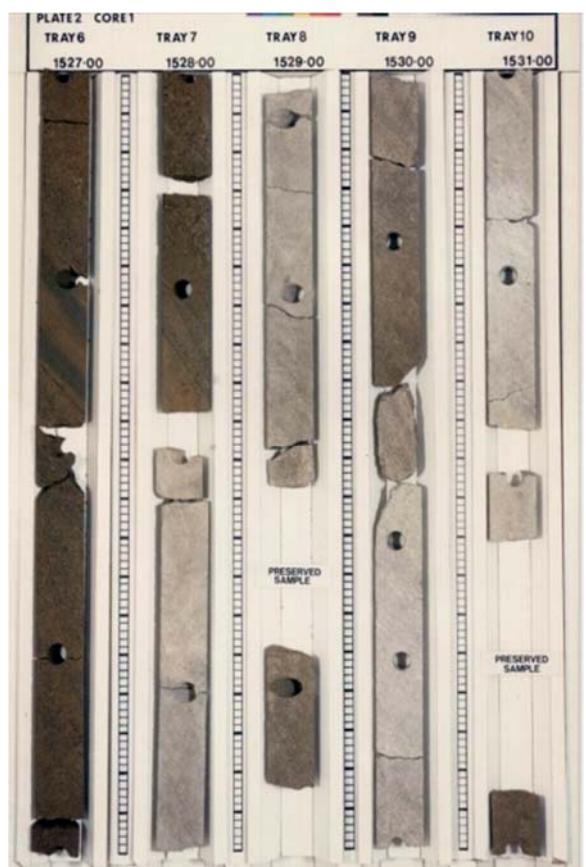
► Operations geology

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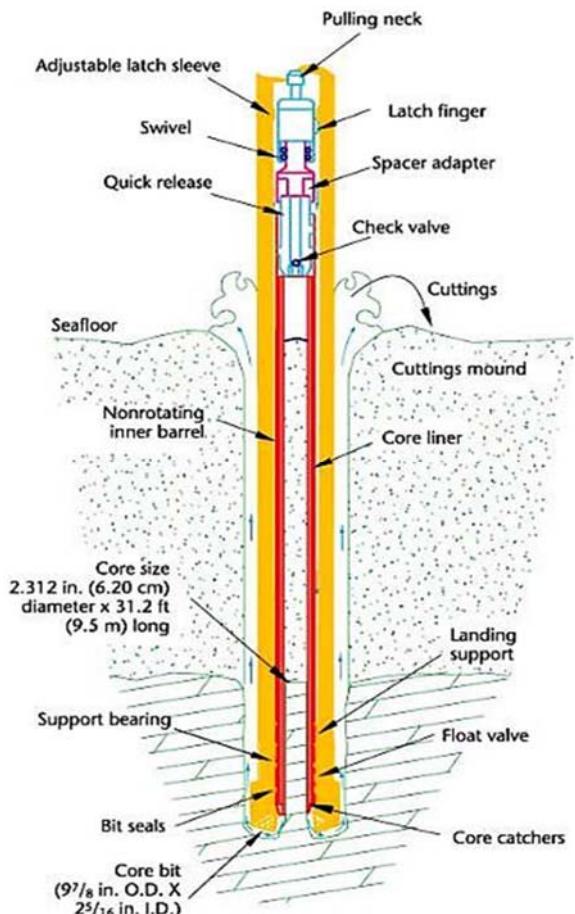
Core sampling



Core bit



Core recovery

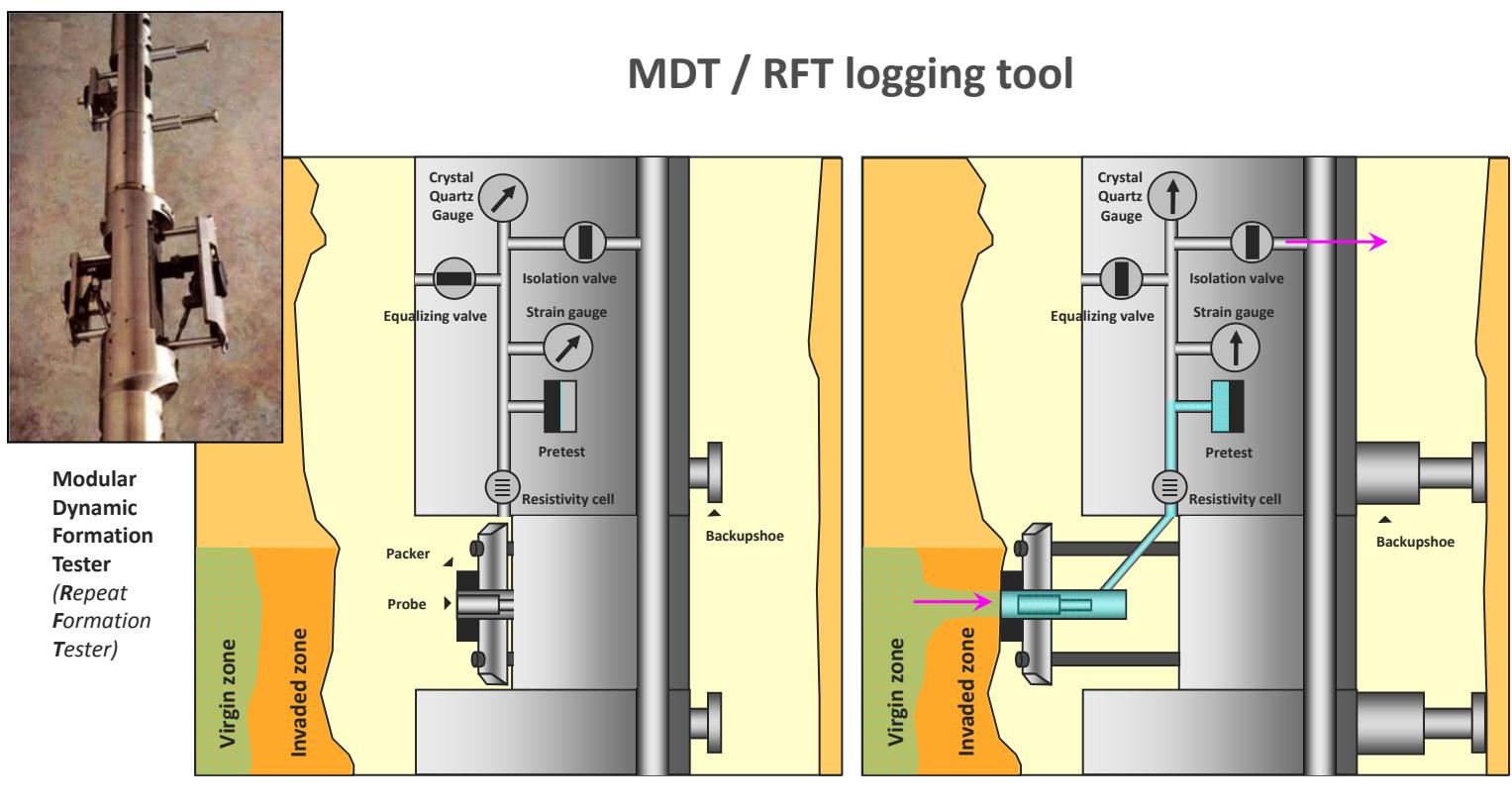


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Fluid sampling



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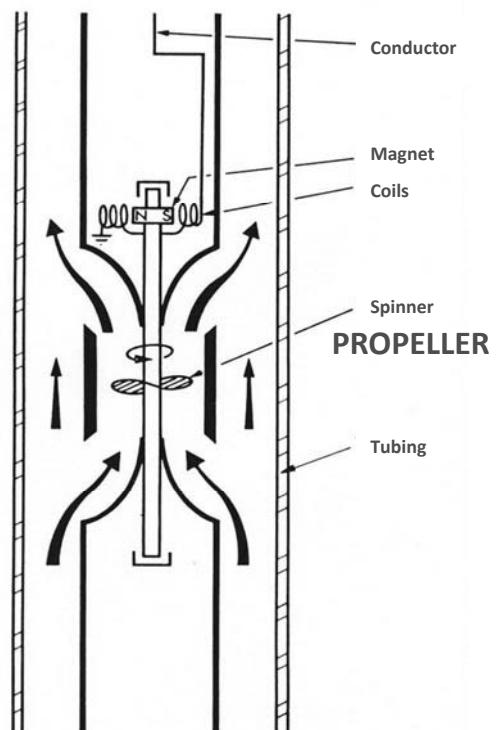
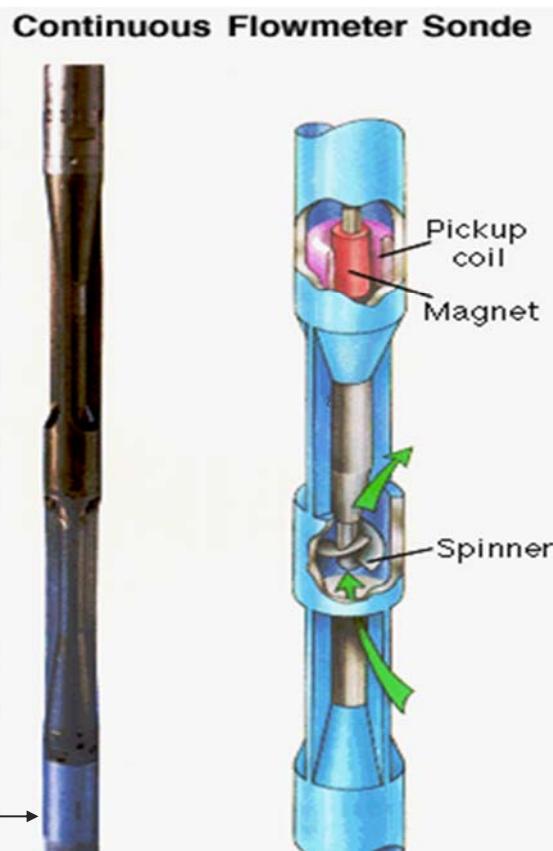
► Operations geology

- Drilling (Reminder)
- Completion (Reminder)
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 - Mud logging
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 - “Quick look” analysis
 - Formation sampling
 - Dynamic measurements

Well test: production potential evaluation



Production Logging Tool (PLT)



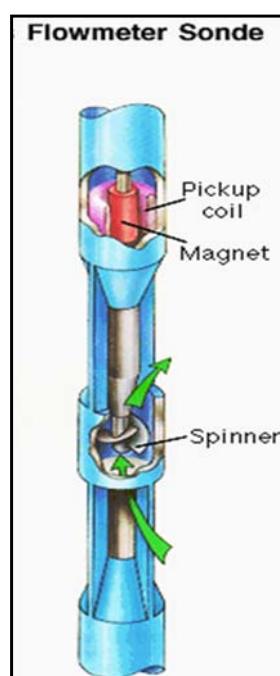
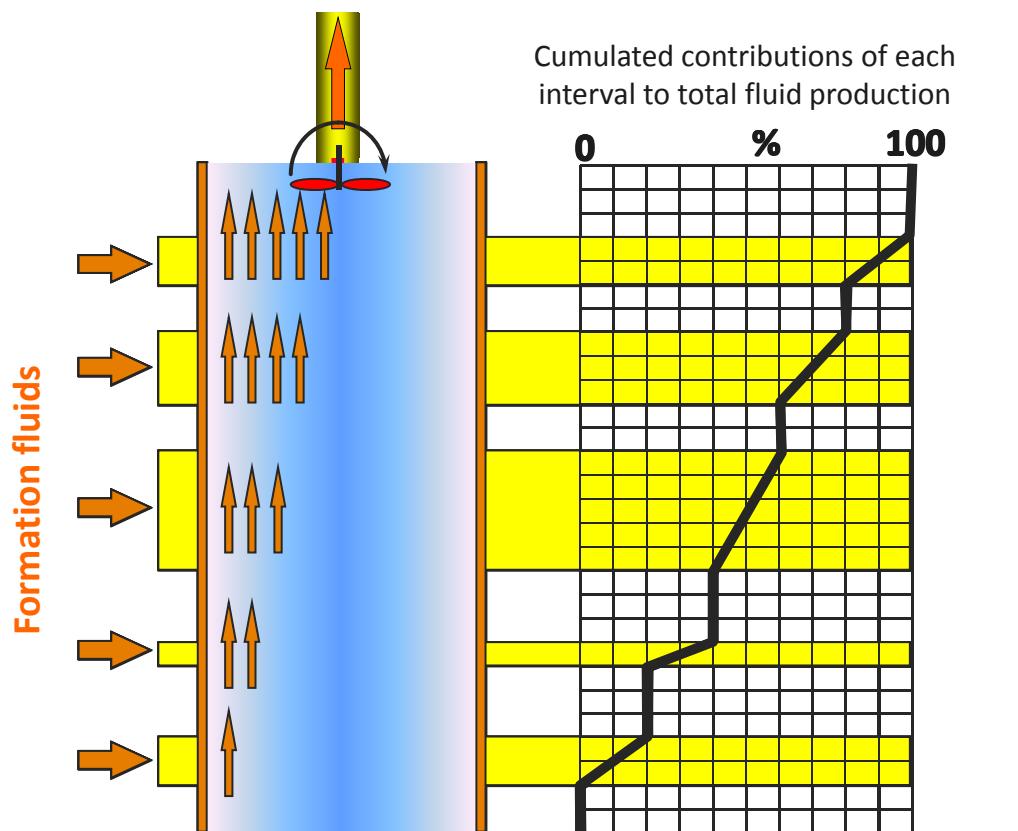
From Schlumberger

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PLT: continuous flowmeter

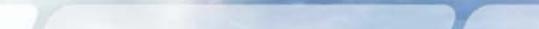


Information from propeller speed measurement is converted into production
(speed is proportional to flow)

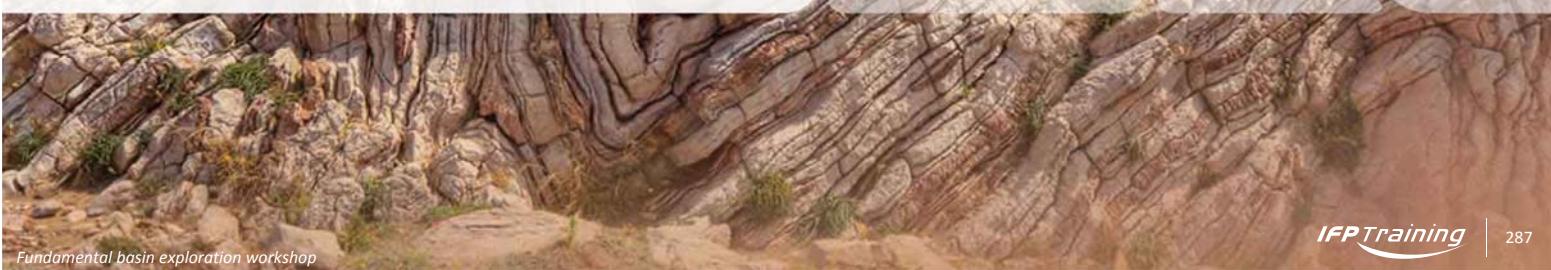
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Basin infilling and organization



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Basin infilling and organization

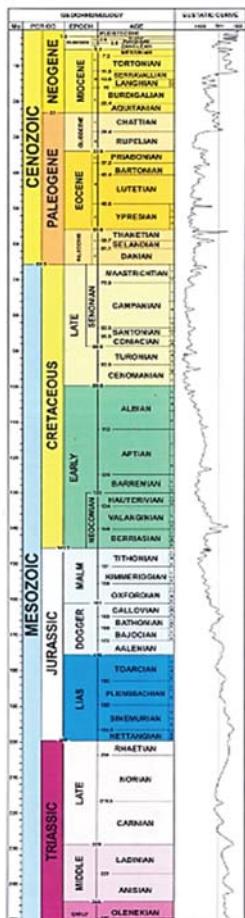
- ▶ **Principles of stratigraphy**
- ▶ **Introduction to sequence stratigraphy**

V

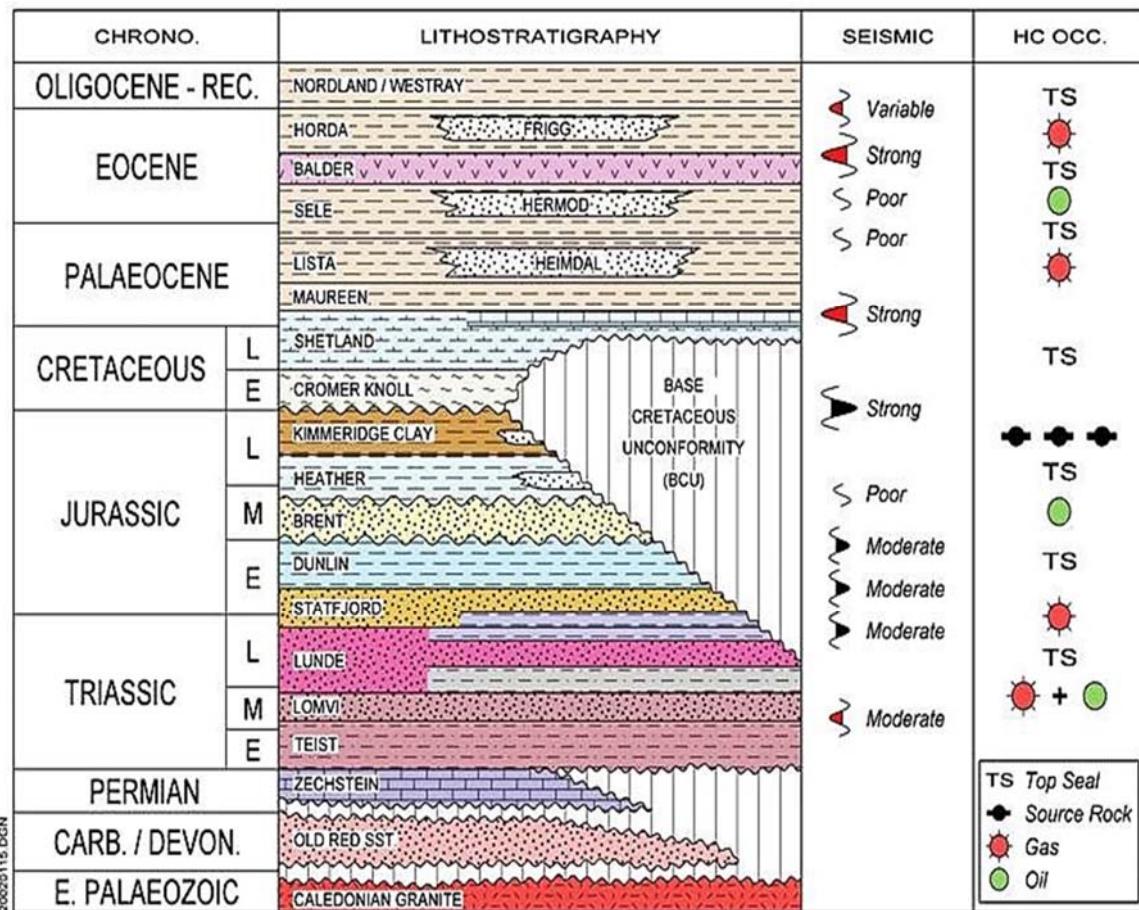
► Definitions

- Stratigraphy: branch of geology that studies the arrangement & succession of rock strata, layers & layering - especially the distribution, deposition, and age of sedimentary rocks – and the relative chronology of their deposition & related geological events
 - Law of superposition
 - Principle of paleontological identity and faunal succession
 - Law of facies (Walther)
- Facies: body of sedimentary rock with specified characteristics. Distinctive rock unit that was formed under certain geological conditions, reflecting a particular depositional process or environment. (Nature of the sediment: no indication on age)
- Isochron: time boundary (or time slice/interval) with same age everywhere (independent from facies)

Geologic time scale - Stratigraphic column



Regional stratigraphy - Hydrocarbons occurrences



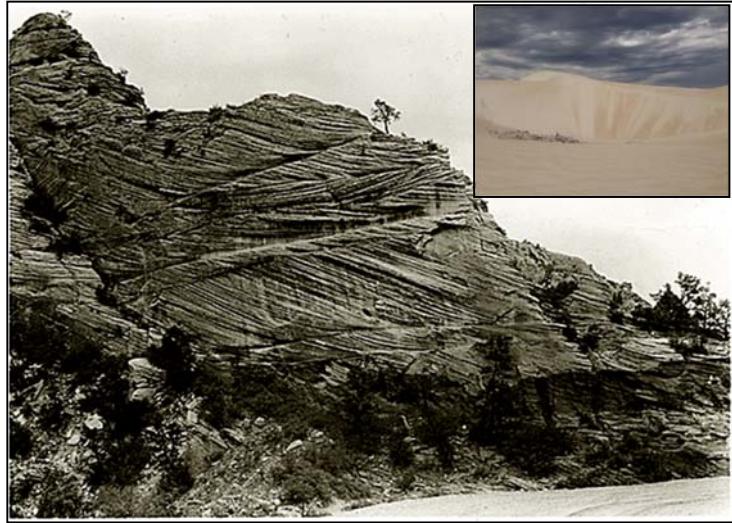
Regional
lithostratigraphy
(oil field in Norway)

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Stratification



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Sedimentary structures



Ripple marks (symmetrical)



Flute casts (current scours)

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Sedimentary features

Bioturbations
(worms tracks)



Present-day stromatolites

Stromatolites
"Blue algae"/Cyanobacteria)



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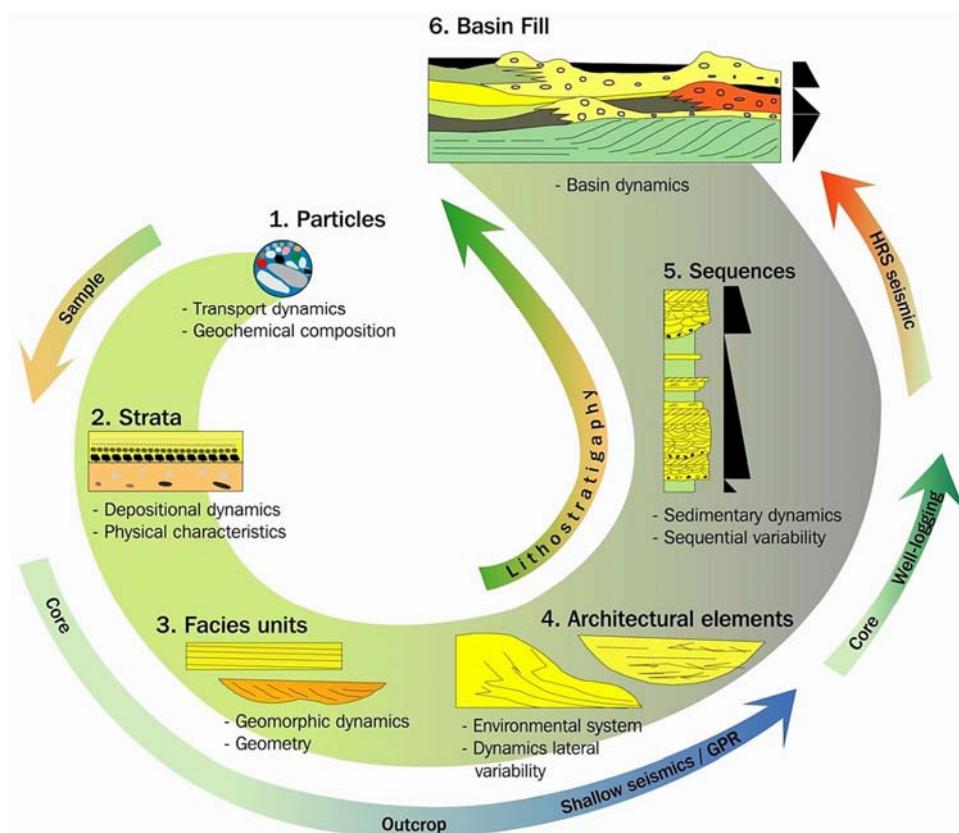


- ▶ **Lithostratigraphy:** deals with physical lithologic (rock type) changes, both vertically in layering or bedding of varying rock type and laterally reflecting changing environments of deposition (facies change).
- ▶ **Chronostratigraphy:** studies the relative (not absolute) age of rock strata, by deriving geochronological data for rock units to understand the geologic history of all rocks - and eventually arrange their sequence of deposition - within a region.
- ▶ **Biostratigraphy:** based on fossil evidence in the rock layers. Strata from widespread locations containing the same fossil fauna and flora are correlatable in time. The geologic time scale was developed (1800's) based on the evidence of biostratigraphy and faunal succession.
- ▶ **Stratigraphy** is commonly used to delineate the nature and extent of **hydrocarbon-bearing reservoir rocks**, seals and traps.

Notes

- ▶ Principles of stratigraphy
- ▶ Introduction to sequence stratigraphy

Sedimentary fill hierarchy

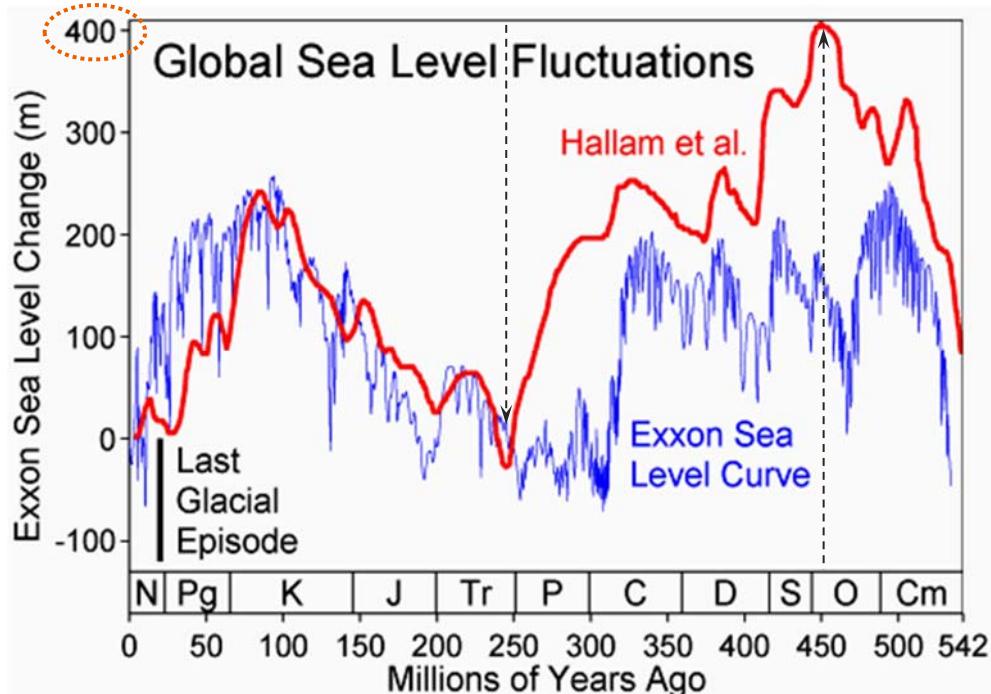


Jeroen Schokker, Wim Westerhoff & Henk Weerts after Heinz & Aigner, 2003

► Relative sea level variations

- The configuration of the continents and seafloor have changed due to plate tectonics during Earth's history. This affects global sea level by determining the depths of the ocean basins.
- The depth of the ocean basins is related to the age of the oceanic lithosphere: as lithosphere becomes older, it gets colder, denser and sinks.
- (Several small oceanic plates (hotter hence lighter) produce shallower oceans and higher sea levels, while fewer plates (colder hence denser) result in deeper oceans and lower sea levels)
- Long-term changes in sea level are the result of changes in the oceanic crust, with a downward trend expected to continue in the very long term.

Frequency of sea level variations



Sea level variations during the Phanerozoic

Definitions

► Eustacy

Global sea level change reflecting a change in the volume of water, or in the shape / capacity of the oceanic basins

- **Transgression:** when land is lost to the sea (*continent flooding*)
- **Regression:** when land is gained from the sea floor

► Isostacy

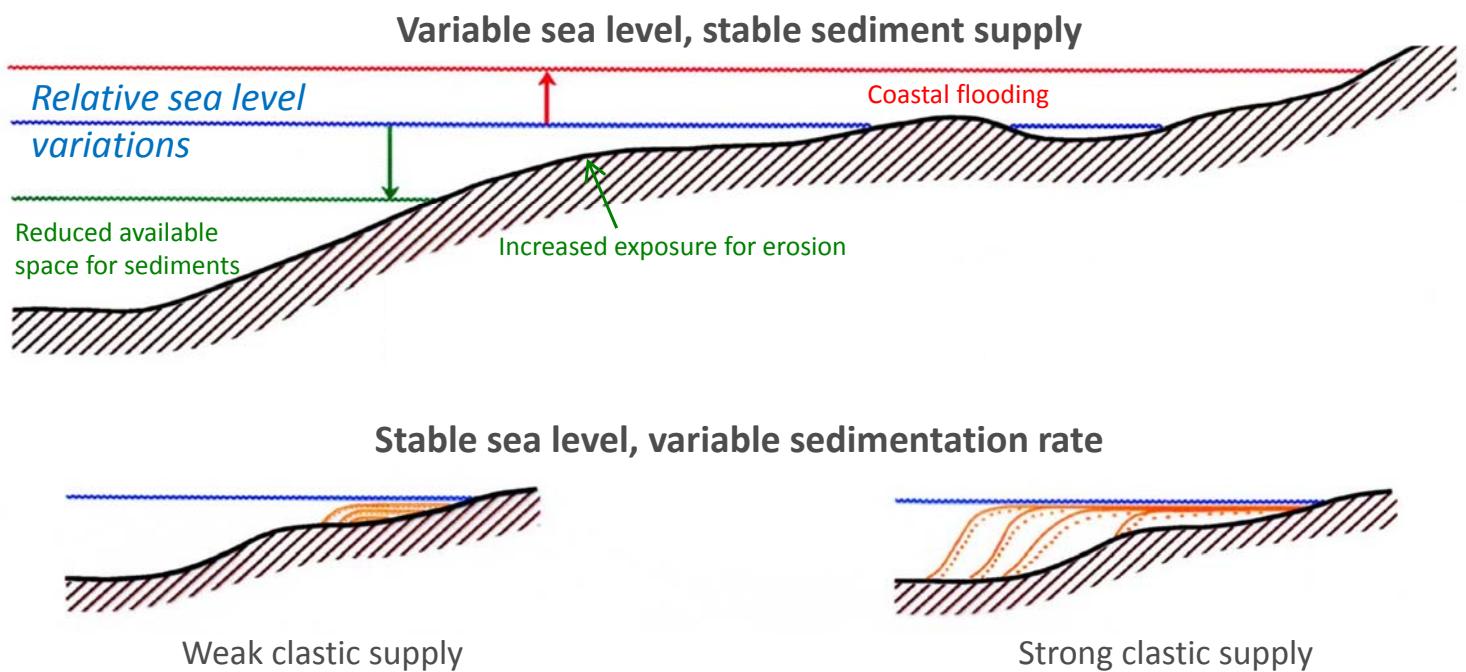
- **Subsidence:** downward motion of the Earth's surface (*relative to sea level's reference*)
- **Uplift:** opposite of subsidence (*elevation increase*)

► Eustacy vs isostacy

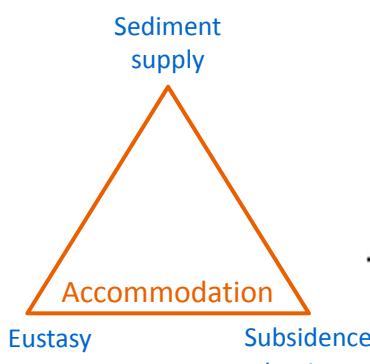
- Eustatic effects are caused by global sea level change
- Isostatic effects are caused by local changes in land elevation
(*tectonic, thermal [swelling/cooling], sedimentary [loading], glacial [rebound],...*)

➤ **Relative sea level variations have either isostatic or eustatic causes, or a combination of both**

Sedimentation vs sea level variations

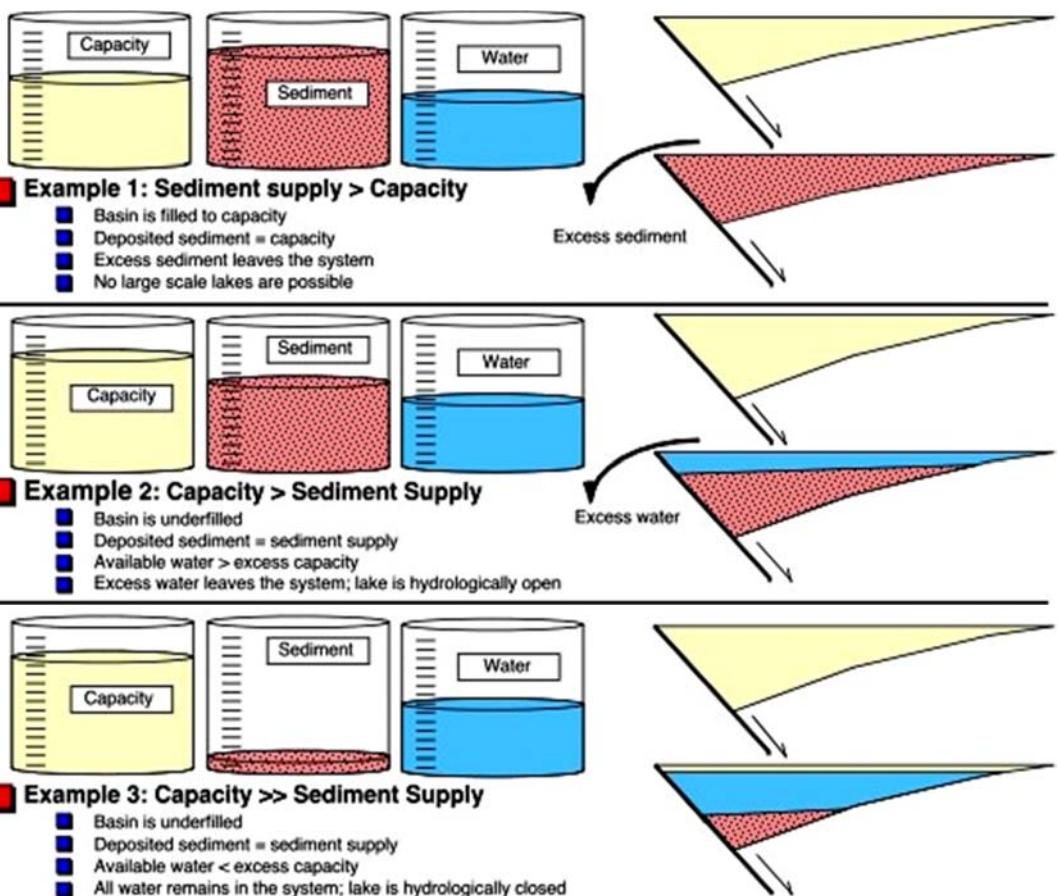


Sedimentation vs sea level variations



Three main variables:

- Relative sea level variations (eustacy [global ocean level] vs isostacy [tectonic activity])
- **Sediment supply** (exposed reliefs [sediment source availability for erosion] + climate [water availability for transport] → sedimentation rate)
- **Basin capacity** (accommodation)



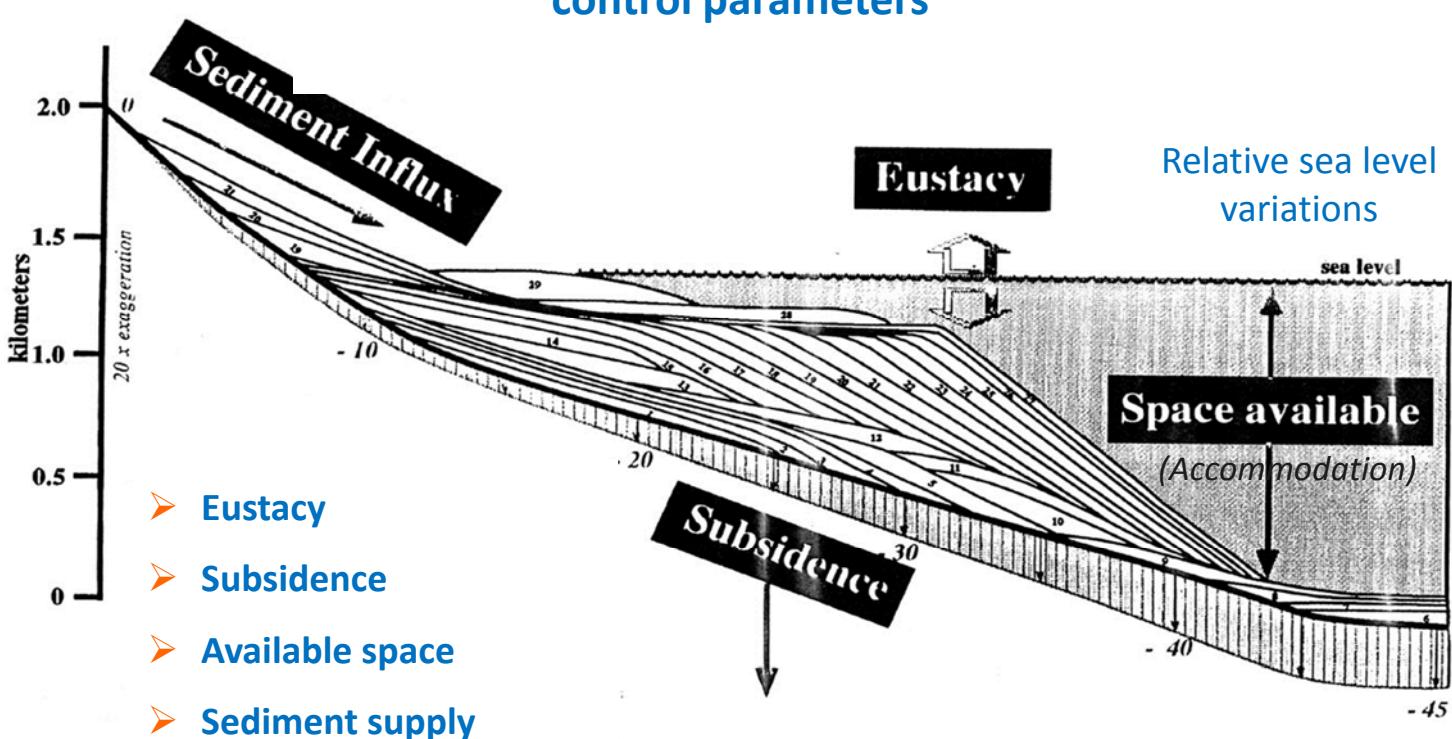
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Parameters controlling sedimentation

Depositional model control parameters

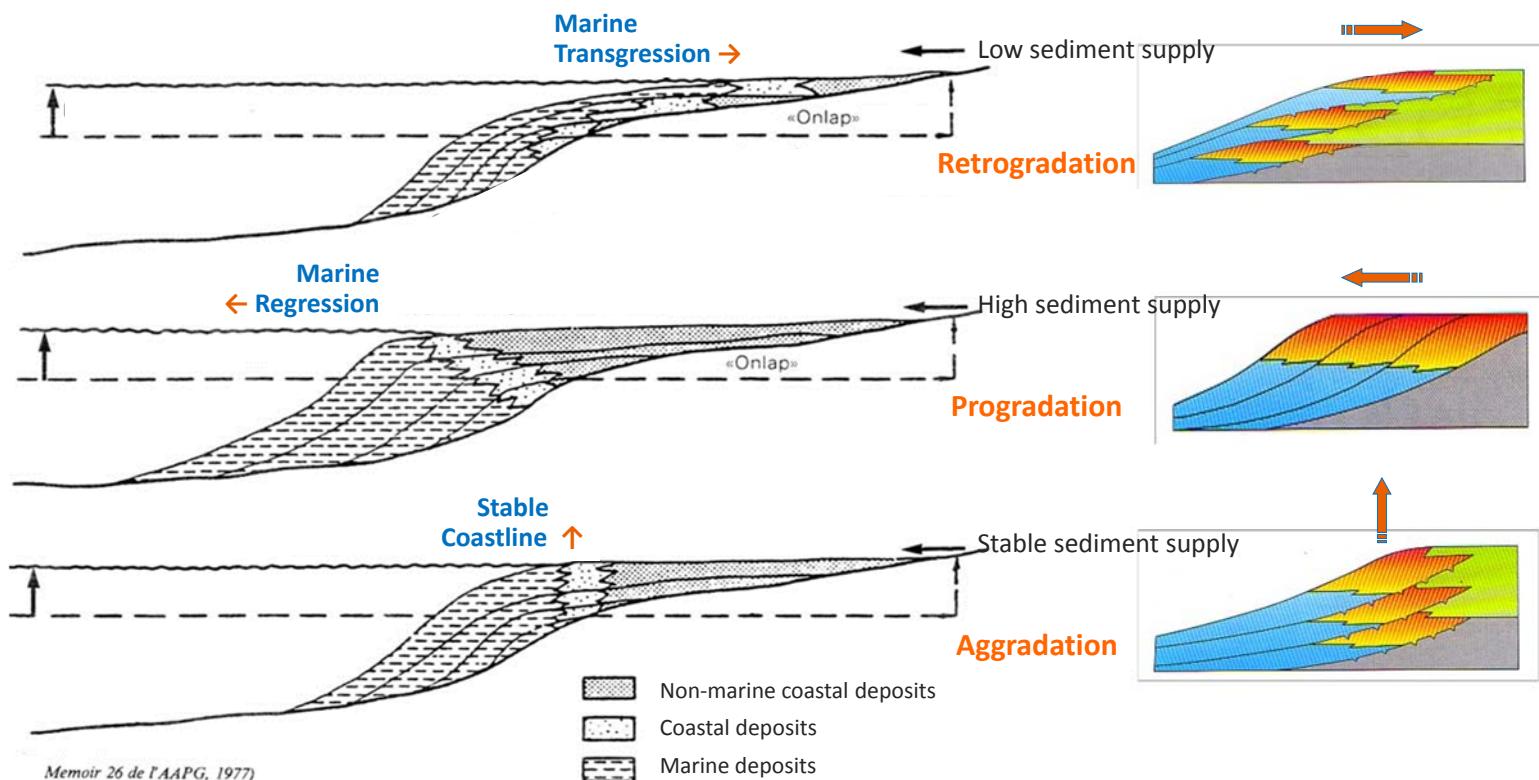


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Sea level variations vs sediment supply



Consequences of sediment supply variations during relative sea level rise

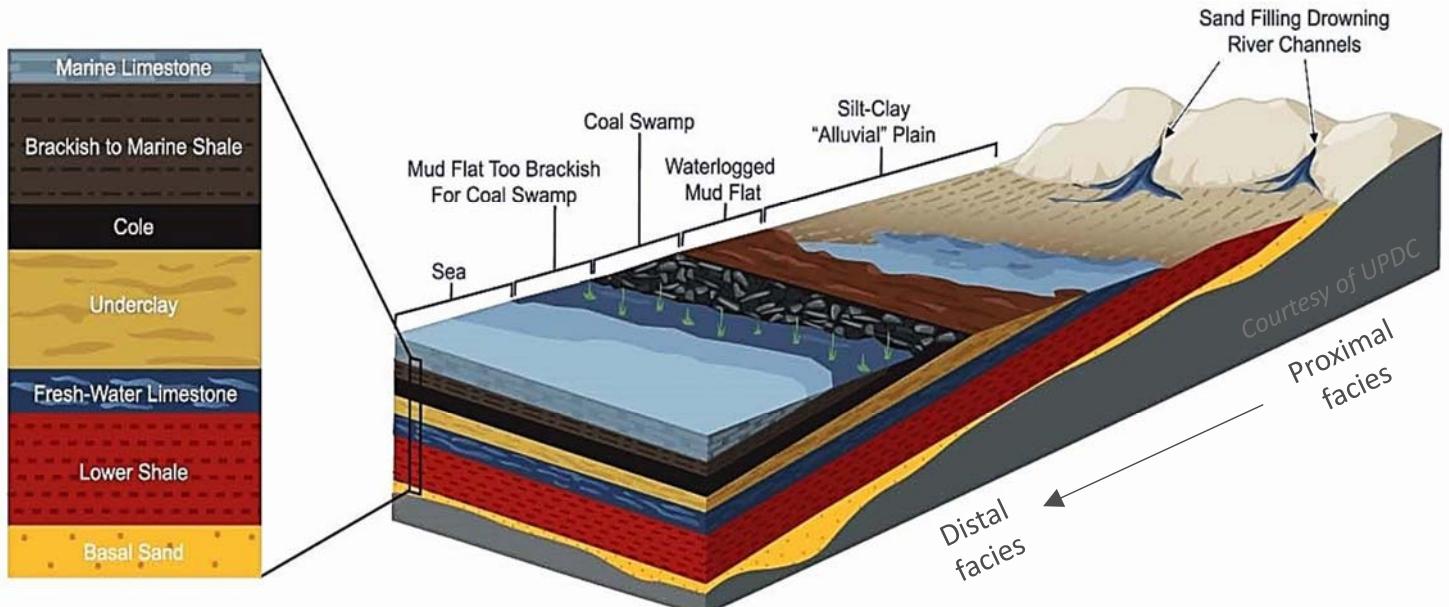
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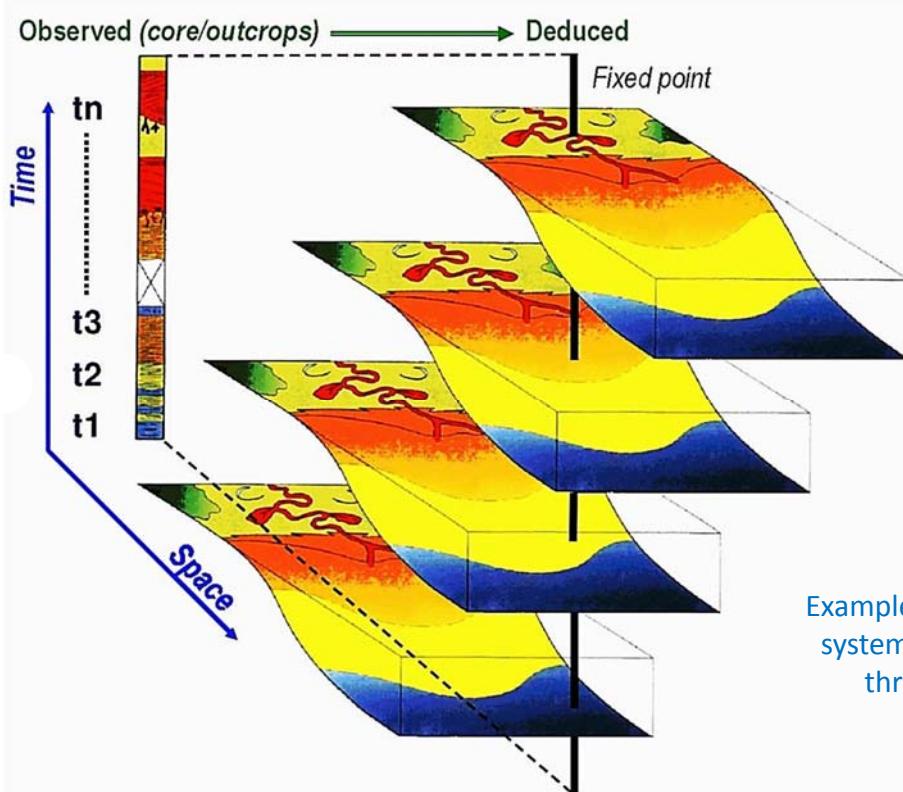
Walther's law (1894)

« Facies adjacent to one another in a continuous vertical sequence also accumulate adjacent to one another laterally »



Allows to use modern depositional processes (analogues) to understand past processes.

Walther's law: sediments piling organization



Example of a depositional system moving forward throughout time

"Facies adjacent to one another in a continuous vertical sequence also accumulated adjacent to one another laterally" (Walther, 1894)

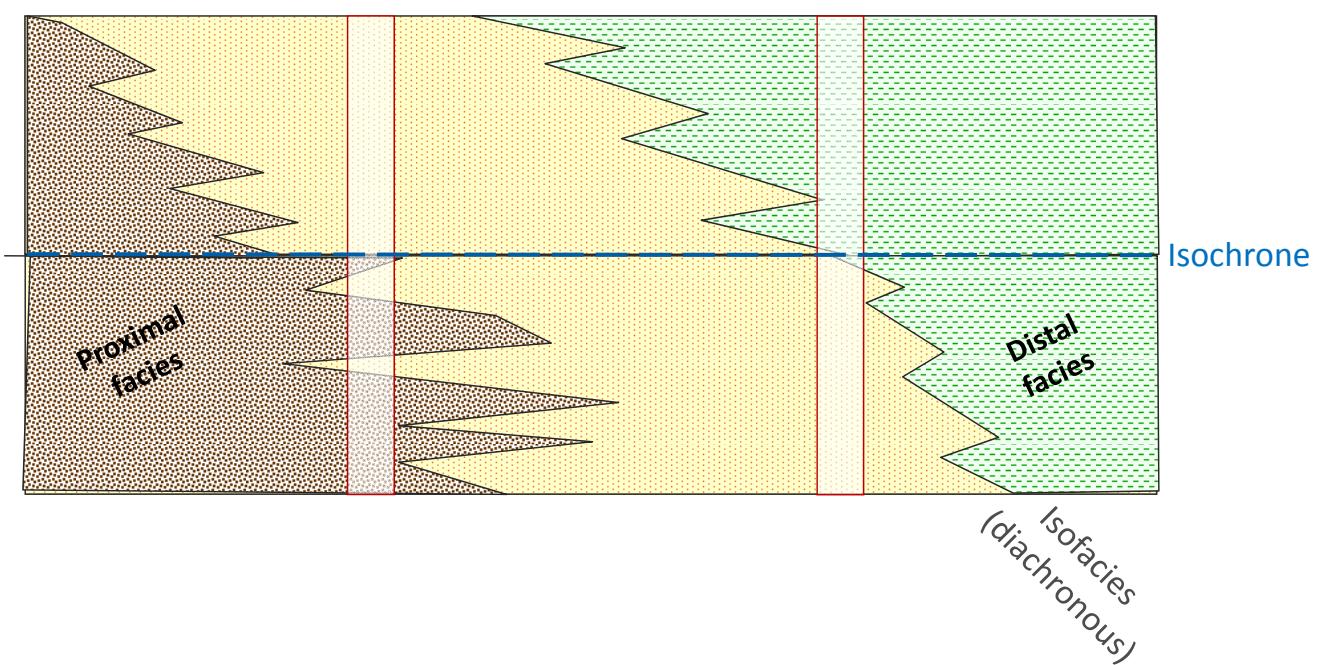
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Litho- vs chrono-stratigraphy

Facies and relative chronology

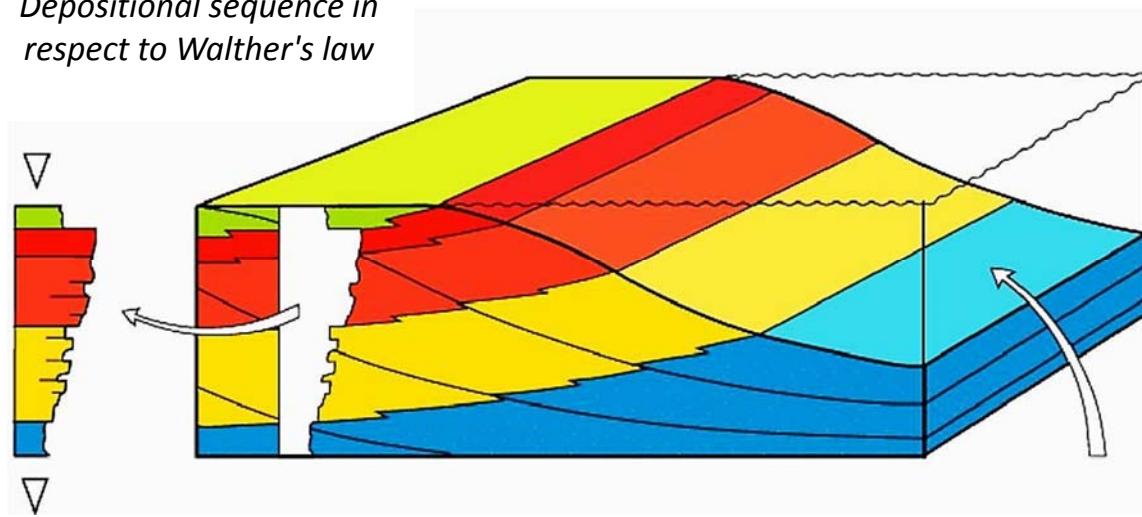


Vertical succession of sediments

Sedimentary sequence

vertical stacking of facies that has recorded their lateral succession throughout geologic times

Depositional sequence in respect to Walther's law



coarsening up sequence

Example of a depositional system that has moved forward throughout time:
Depositional system progradation (proximal facies overlapping distal facies)

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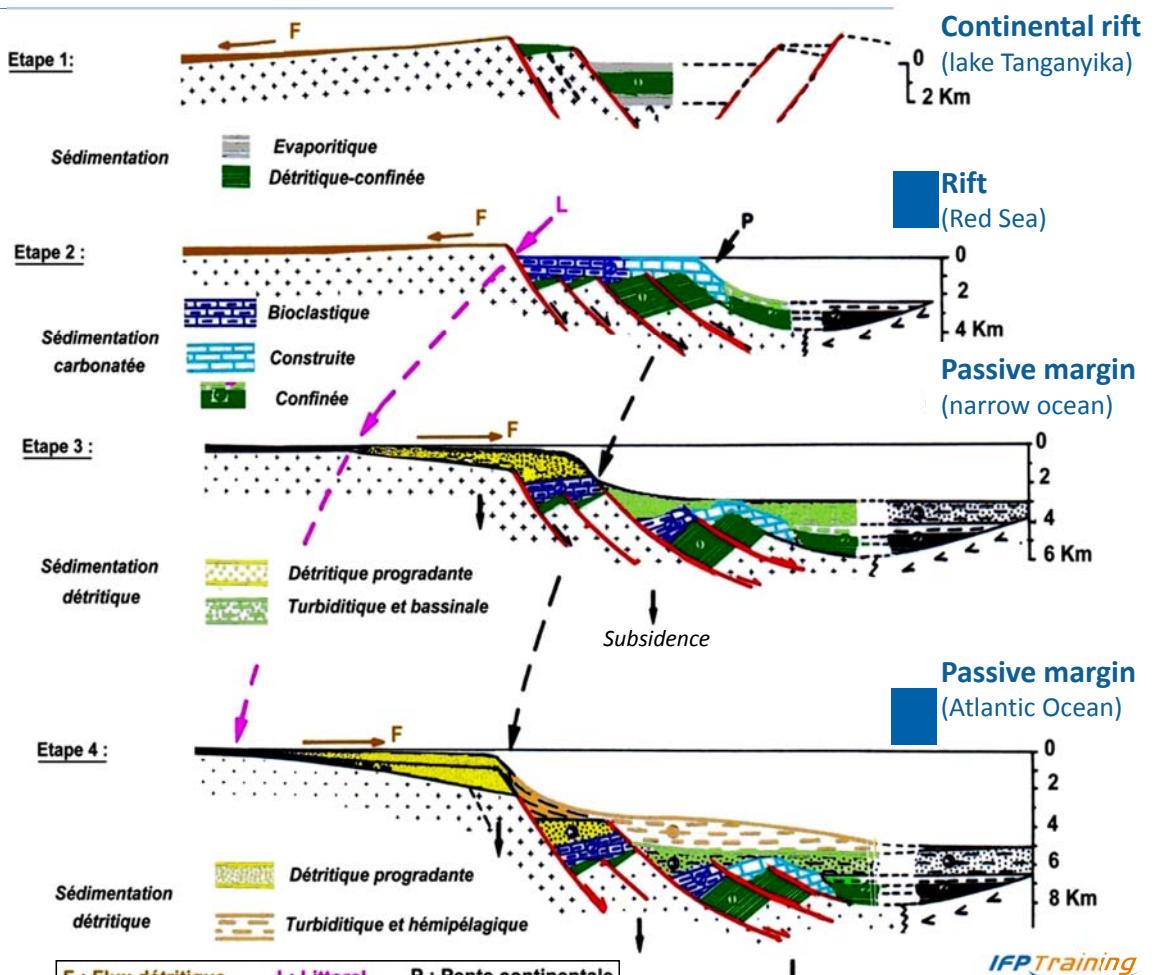
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Earth geodynamics vs Depositional environments

Evolution of sedimentation during a rifting process

Tectonic phases from a rift to a passive margin and related environments and facies



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- ▶ **Sequence stratigraphy** is based on the systematic subdivision of the sediment pile by well-defined surfaces
- ▶ These surfaces are used to construct an **analysis framework** of the depositional settings in the sedimentary record
- ▶ The resulting interpretation is used to **predict sedimentary facies' extension** and characteristics
- ▶ **Sequence stratigraphy** is an integrated method that integrates all exploration tools (geology, geophysics, palynology, geochemistry,...) that aims at identifying:
 - The chronostratigraphic relationship between depositional layers
 - The basic units in each sedimentary pile, i.e. **depositional sequences**
- ▶ Characteristics of a depositional sequence
 - Bound by unconformities and correlative conformities
 - Composed of **systems tracts**
- ▶ A system tract is:
 - Bound by physical surfaces
 - Composed of elementary « units » (genetic units or **parasequences**)



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Volumetrics



- ▶ **Estimation of in-place hydrocarbon accumulations**
- ▶ **Conventional hydrocarbon recovery**

Definition - Accumulation vs Reserves

- ▶ **Accumulation:** Volume of hydrocarbons in place to be estimated = Hydrocarbon deposit
- ▶ **Reserves:** Part of this volume that can be recovered by technical and economic procedures

"Reserves are defined as the estimated quantities of effluents (crude oil, natural gas, gas condensate, liquids recovered from natural gas) and associated substances, that are considered commercially viable to recover from a given accumulation, beginning at a future date, under specific economic conditions, using current technology, and subject to present-day legal restrictions".

Top 5 countries in 10⁹ bbls

Venezuela: 296.5 , Saudi Arabia: 265.4 , Canada: 175.2 , Iran: 151.2 , Iraq: 143.1

Resources calculations basics

$$\text{Reserves} = \underbrace{\text{GRV} * \text{N/G} * \text{PHI} * \text{Shc} * \text{FVF} * \text{RF}}_{\text{Accumulations (OIP/ GIP)}}$$

- ▶ **GRV:** Gross Rock Volume (HC-bearing GRV)
- ▶ **N/G:** Net-to-Gross (ratio of volume and thickness)
- ▶ **PHI:** Porosity (ϕ effective)
- ▶ **Shc:** Hydrocarbon Saturation (oil or gas)
- ▶ **FVF:** Volumetric Factor (contraction: oil - expansion: gas)
- ▶ **RF:** Recovery Factor
- ▶ **OIP/GIP:** Oil / Gas In Place

Deterministic evaluation

$$\text{HC in place Volume} = \frac{\text{Bulk rock volume}}{\text{*}}$$

(Surface conditions)

Net / Gross

OOIP

69
IGID

IGP

Net / Gross **N/G**

*

N/G

Net / Gross

*

N/G

Porosity

*

ϕ

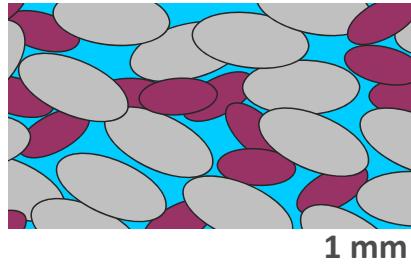
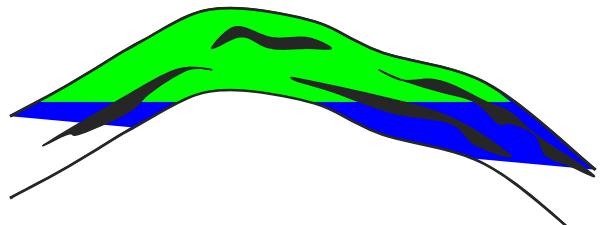
Oil saturation

*

So

Formation volume factor

1/Bo

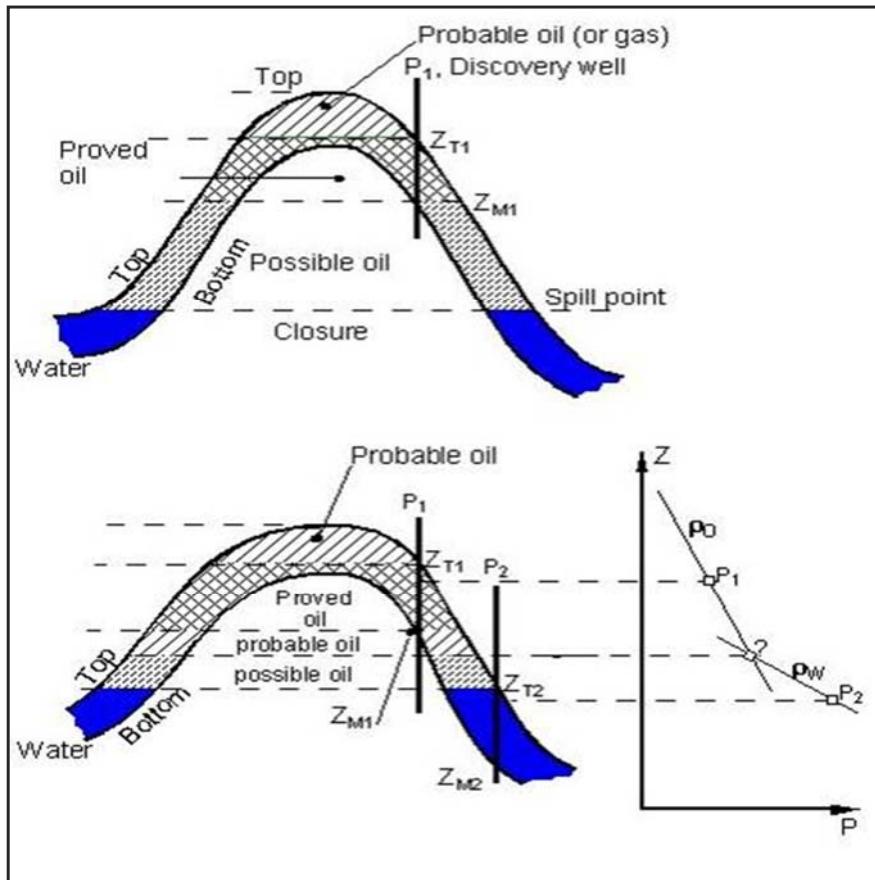


$$\text{OHIP} = \text{BRV} * \text{N/G} * \phi * \text{So} * (1/\text{Bo})$$

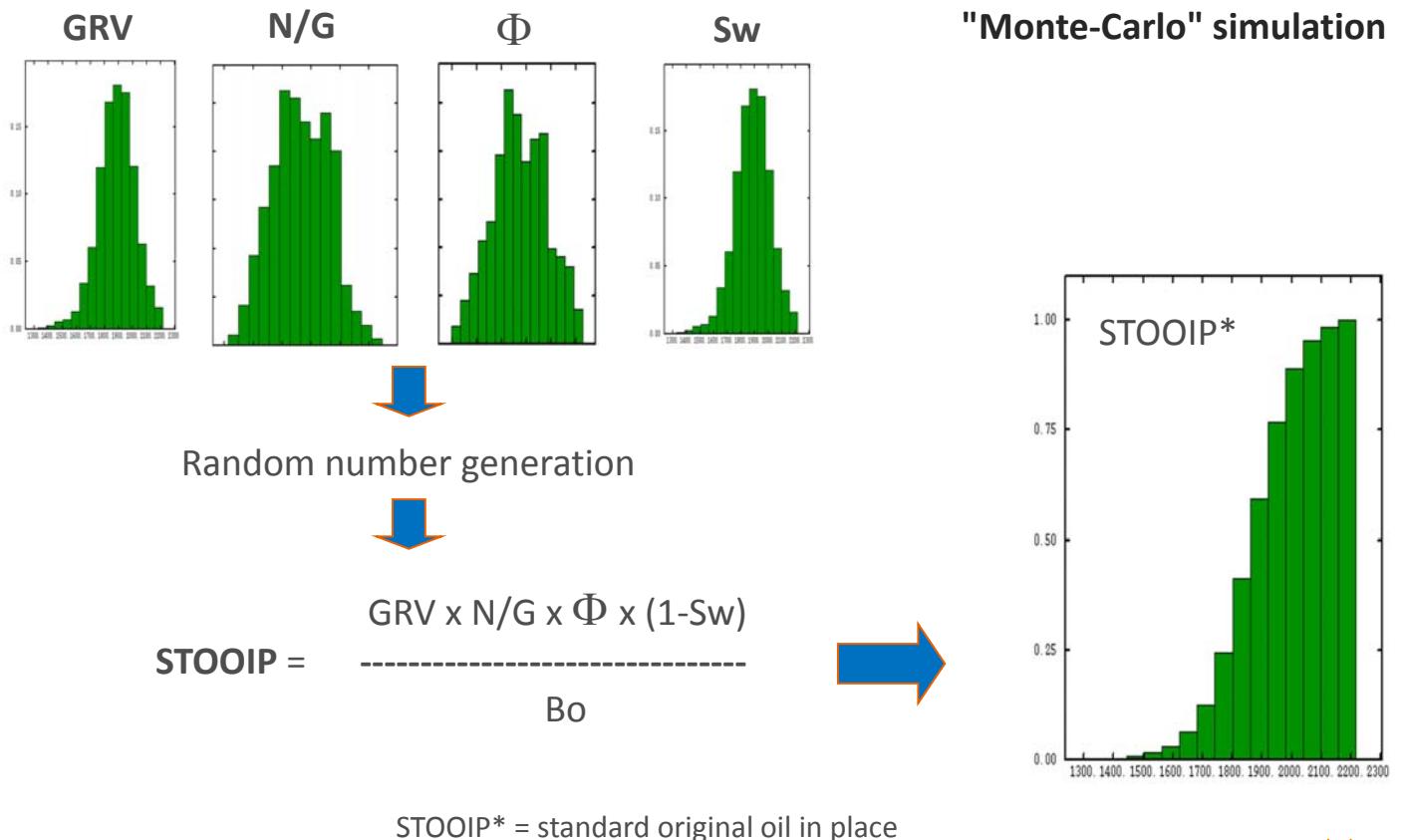
*OOIP reservoir = BRV reservoir above OWC * average (N/G) * average Phi * average So * average (1/Bo)*

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Uncertainty on fluid contact geometry



Probabilistic evaluation

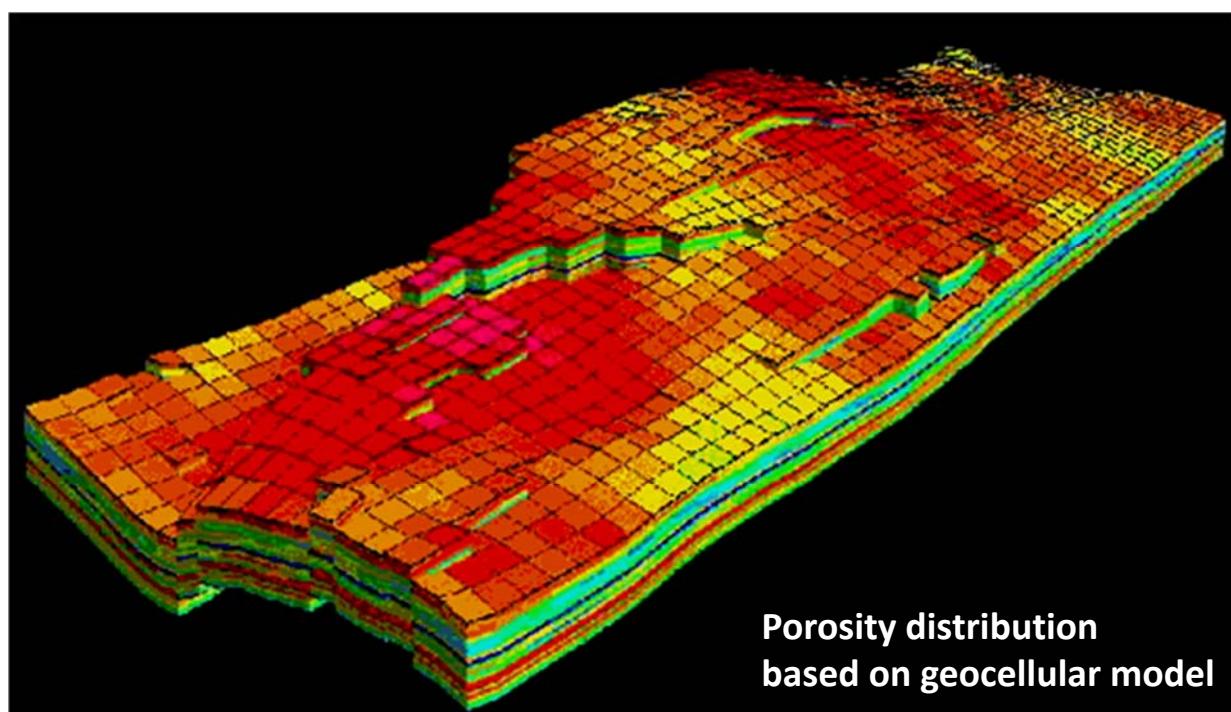


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Probabilistic evaluation



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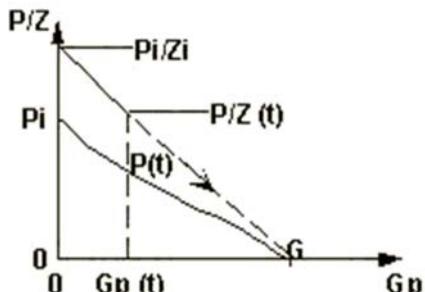
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Material balance

Gas

$$\text{Équation : } G_p = G \left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{Z_i}{P_i} \cdot \frac{P}{Z} \right) \right\}$$



- Conditions:
- ✓ No aquifer ($We = 0$)
 - ✓ Dry gas
 - ✓ No water injection
 - ✓ $P > P$ saturation (P_r)

G_p = cumulative gas produced scf
 G = free reservoir gas in place scf
 B_g = gas formation volume factor
 Z = compressibility factor

Oil

$$\text{Équation : } N_p B_o = N B_{oi} \text{ ce } \Delta P$$

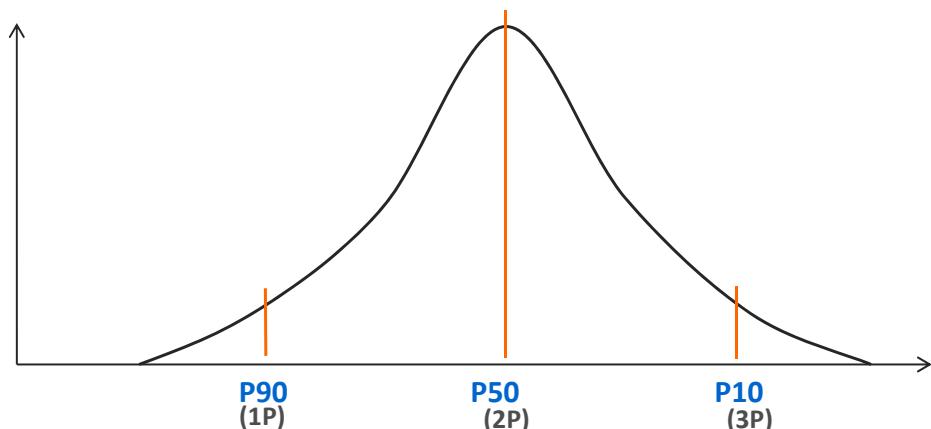
N_p = cumulative oil produced STB
 N = reservoir oil in place STB
 B_o = oil formation volume factor
 C_e = effective compressibility =
 $= C_o + (C_w S_w / S_o) + (C_f / S_o)$
 ΔP = pressure drop $P_i - P$

Conditions:

- ✓ No aquifer ($We = 0$)
- ✓ No gas cap
- ✓ No water injection
- ✓ $P > P$ saturation (P_b)

Reserves evaluation

► 1P/2P/3P ranges



From J.Pouzet

■ **P90:** Value too low 90% of the time



“Proven” (1P)

■ **P50:** Value too low / too high 50% of the time



“Proven + Probable” (2P)

NB : in all practical cases, confusing P50 (median), the most likely value (mode) and the mean value is of no consequence

■ **P10:** Value too low 10% of the time



“Proven + Probable + Possible” (3P)

Volumetric estimation - Key points



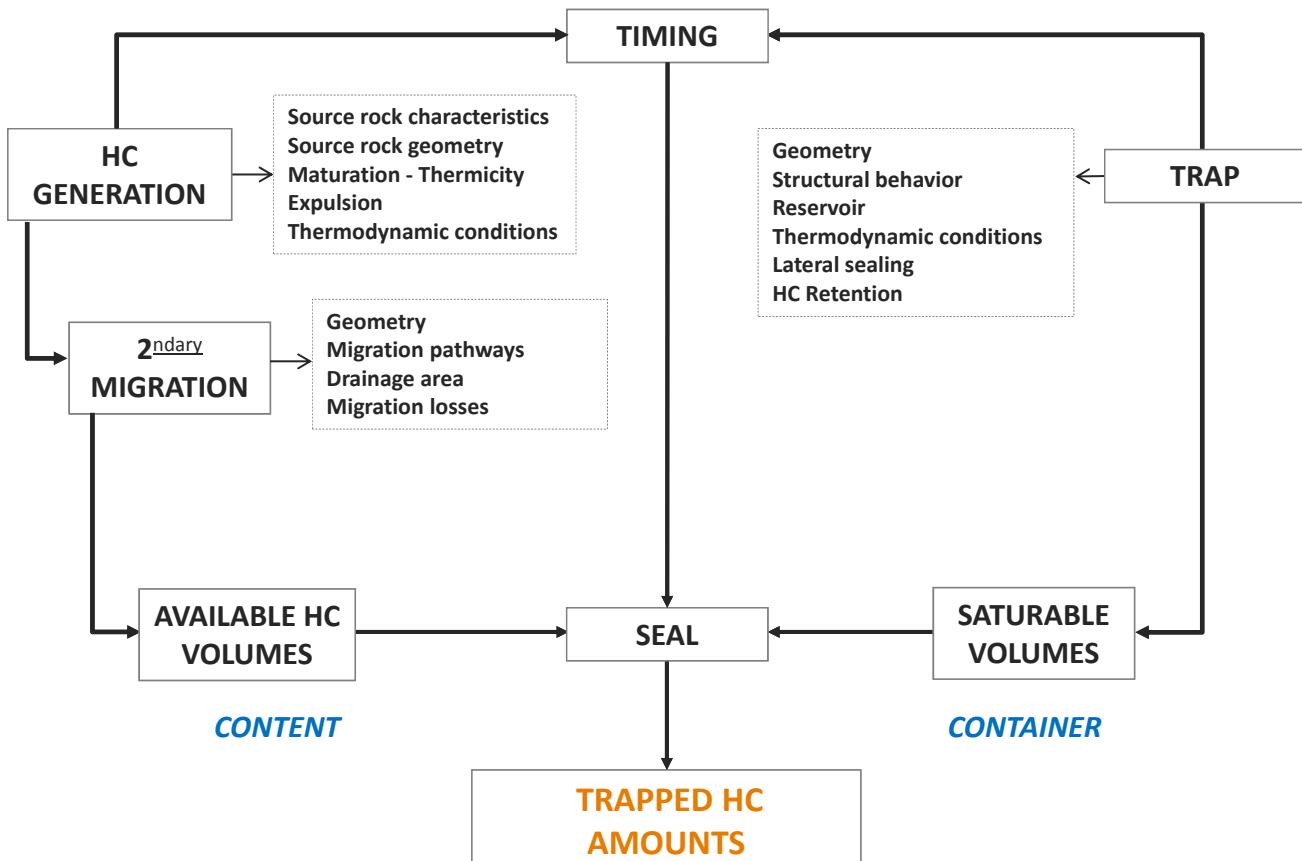
► Three methods

- Deterministic: for each category: Proven, Probable, Possible, OOIP estimated deterministically as a discrete volume (3 sets of reservoir parameter maps).
- Probabilistic: provide a range of values rather than a single value. Three values: P90 for minimum, P50 for median and P10 for maximum.
- Dynamic: material balance

► Three categories

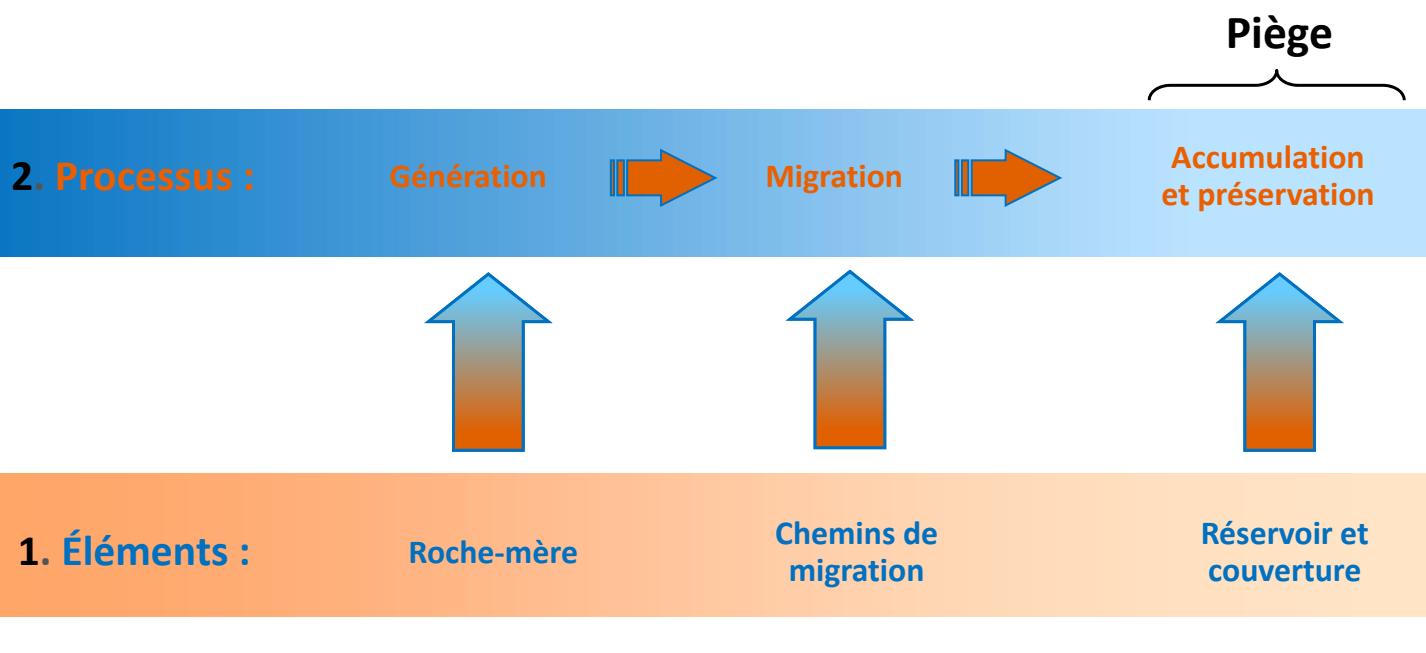
- Proven reserves: "1P"
 - Quantities of HC that will be produced
 - More than 90% reliable,
 - Official figure audited and published (annual report of listed companies)
 - Taken into consideration by financial community (SEC)
- Proven and Probable: "2P"
 - More than 50% likely to be produced
 - Not published (companies' strategic "secret")
 - Taken into consideration for decision-making* and financing**
 - Probable reserves may become proven with improved knowledge of the field
- Proven, Probable and Possible: "3P"
 - 10% reliability only on potential production
 - Not published, not considered

Basin HC potential assessment: a 4-dimension evaluation



Synchronisation entre les éléments et les processus

Le piège doit être disponible avant/pendant la migration

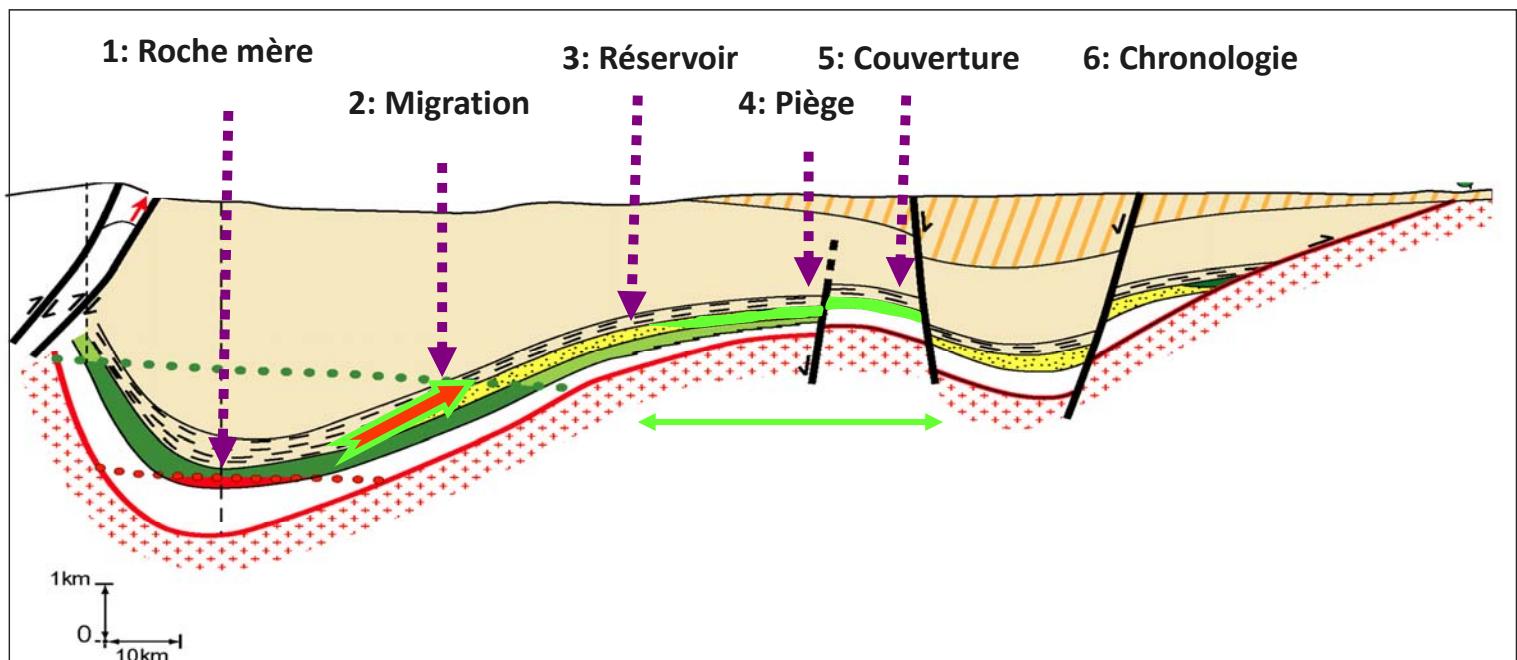


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Vital pour l'explorateur : La clé du succès dépend de 6 paramètres



Si un de ces 6 paramètres n'est pas satisfait, c'est l'échec pour le prospect
La PS (probabilité de succès) est le produit des probabilités d'existence de chaque paramètre.

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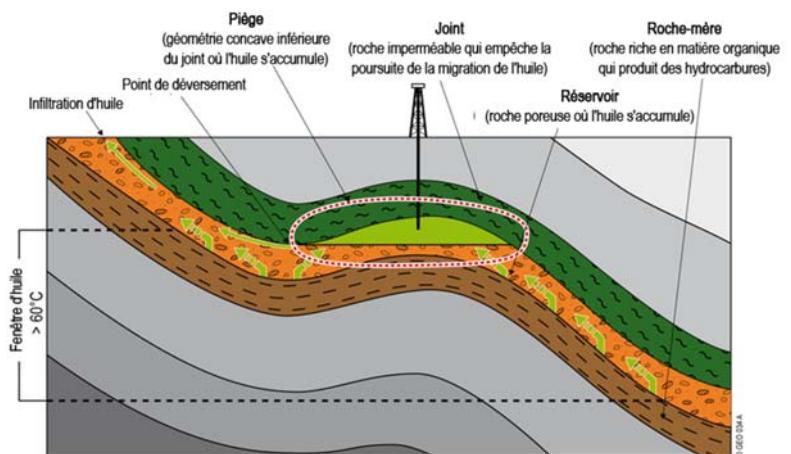
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Conditions pour la formation d'un gisement d'hydrocarbures

► Présence nécessaire de :

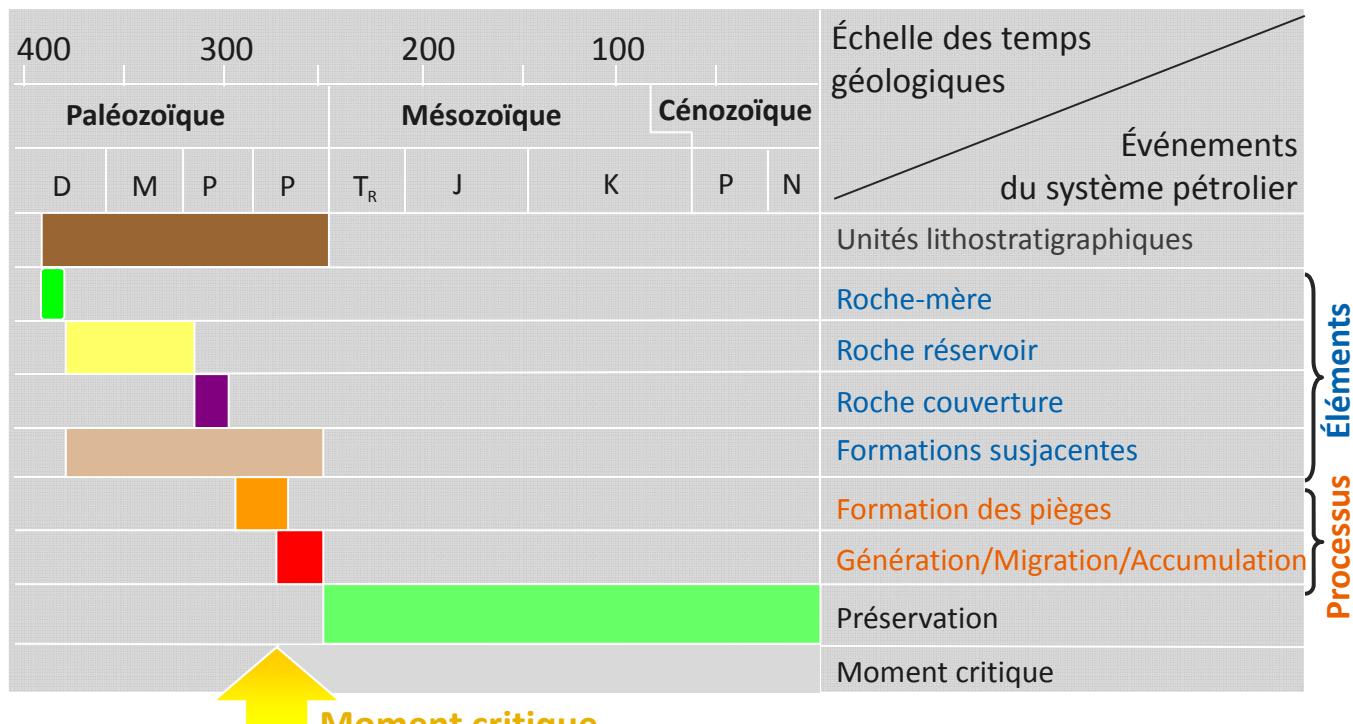
- une (ou plus) roche-mère mature,
- une (ou plus) roche réservoir,
- une roche couverture,
- une phase (+chemins) de migration,
- un (ou plusieurs) pièges,

... et :



- une chronologie adéquate entre la formation du piège, la génération d'hydrocarbures et les épisodes de migration
- des quantités suffisantes d'hydrocarbures pour alimenter le piège
- la préservation de l'intégrité du piège au cours des temps géologiques

Système pétrolier : Charte des événements



Période d'expulsion et de migration
(les pièges doivent déjà exister)

Magoon and Dow

Notes

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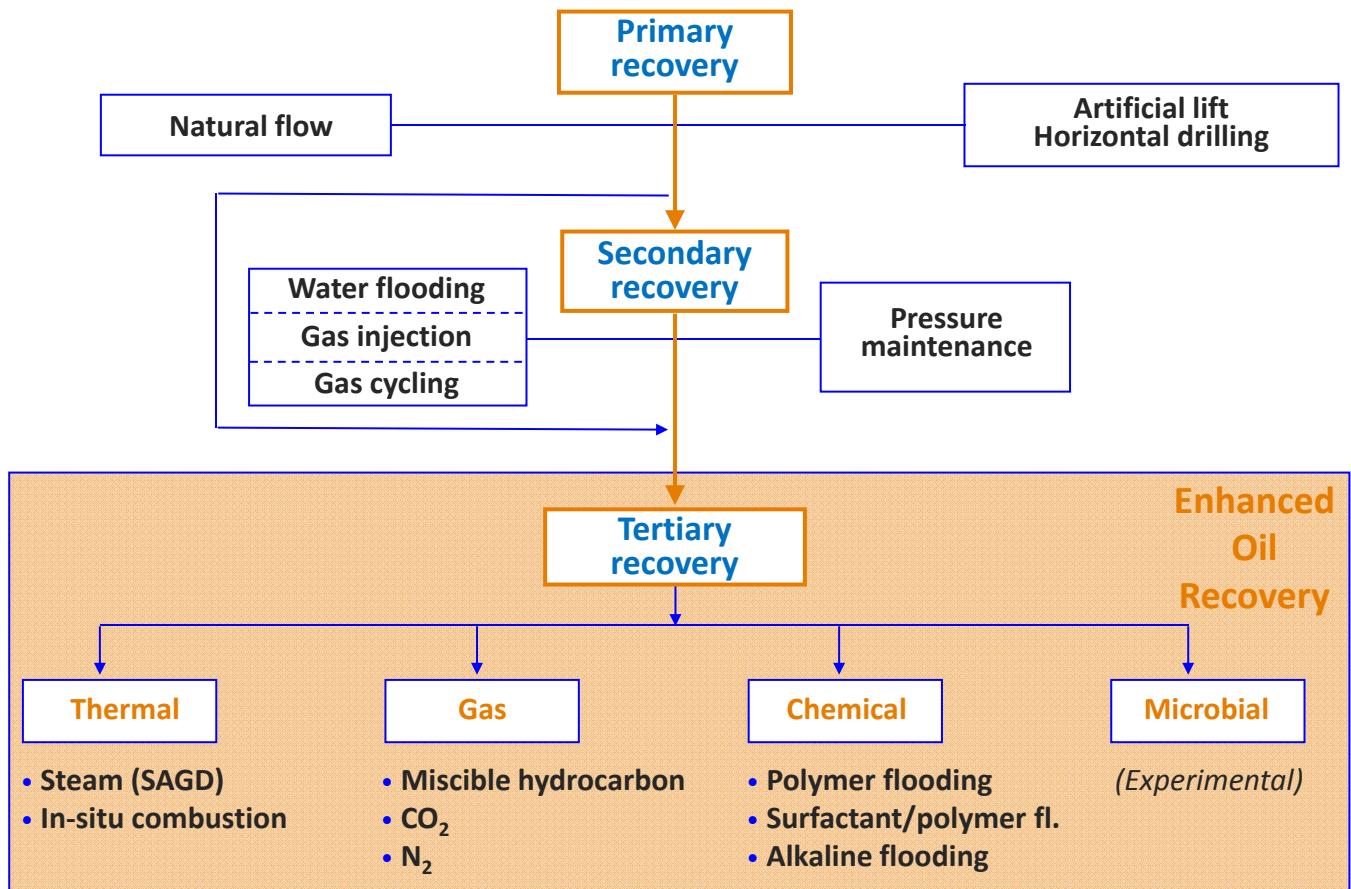
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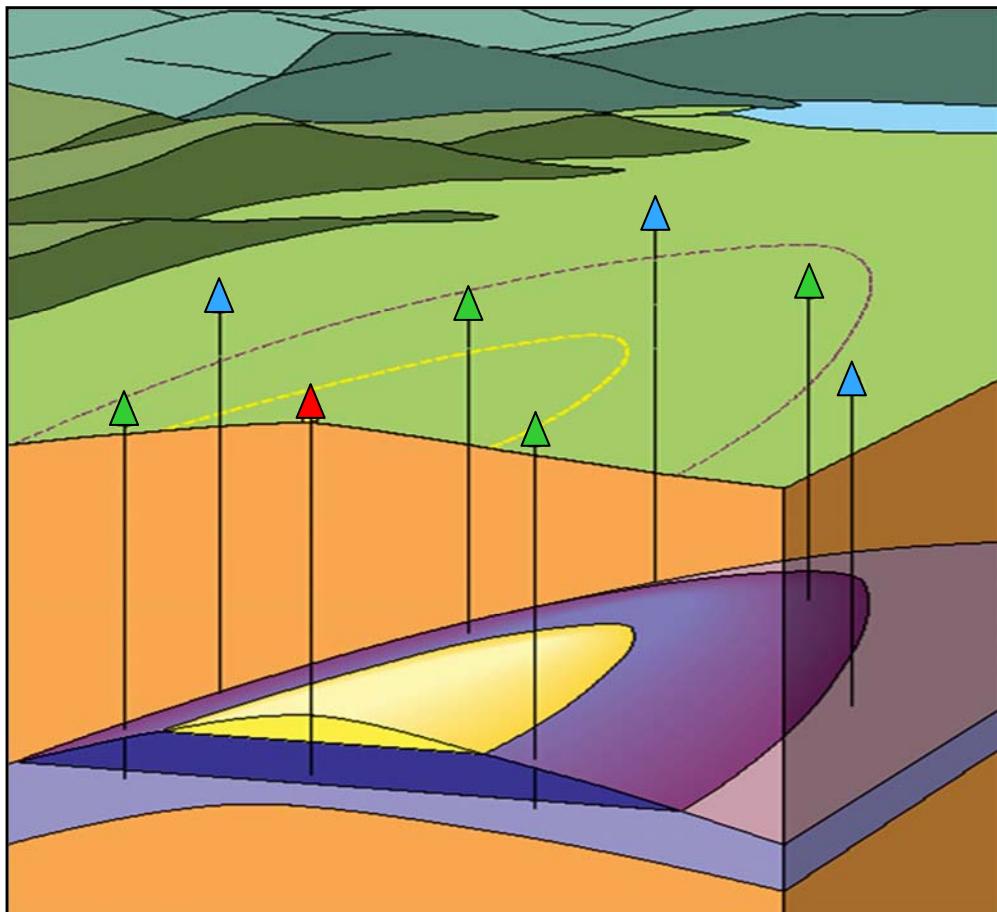
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- ▶ Estimation of in-place hydrocarbon accumulations
- ▶ Conventional hydrocarbon recovery

Recovery types



Field development strategy

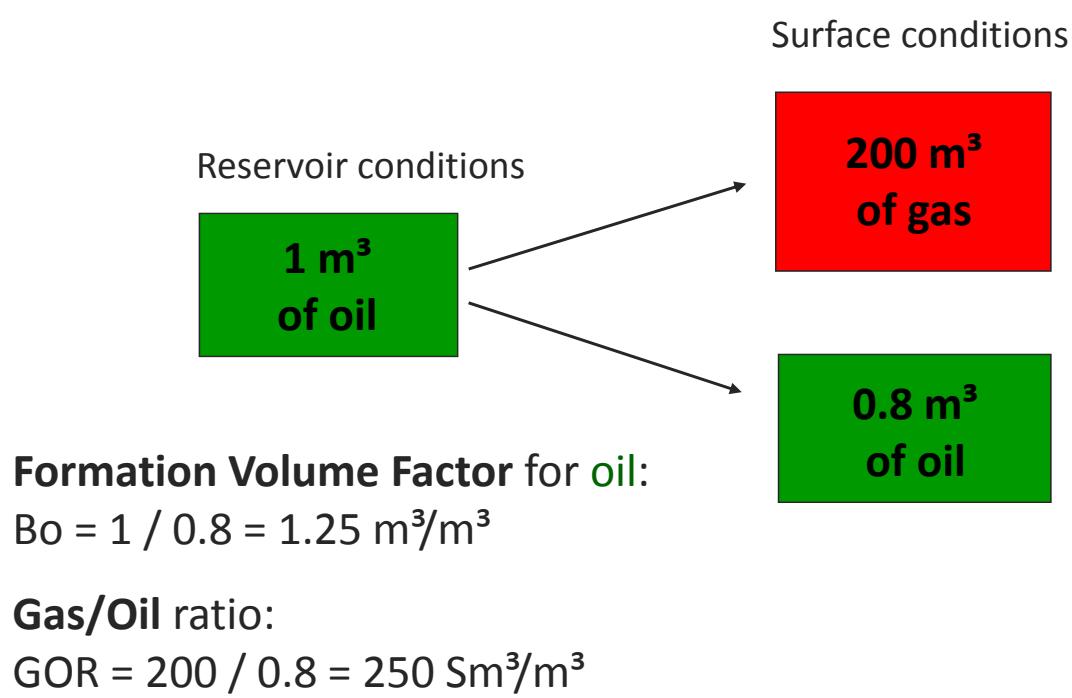


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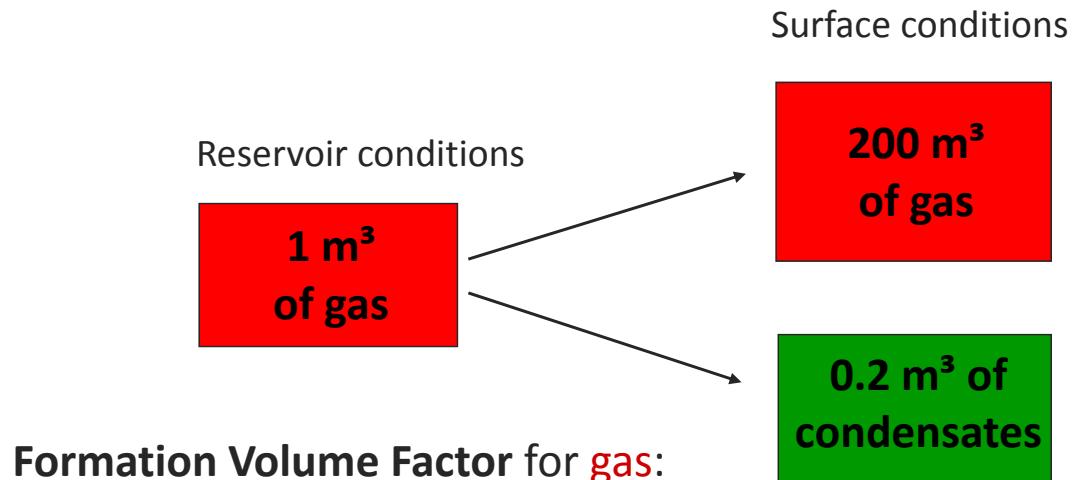
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Behaviour of oil – Reservoir vs surface conditions



Behaviour of gas – Reservoir vs surface conditions



Formation Volume Factor for gas:

$$Bg = 1 / 200 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$$

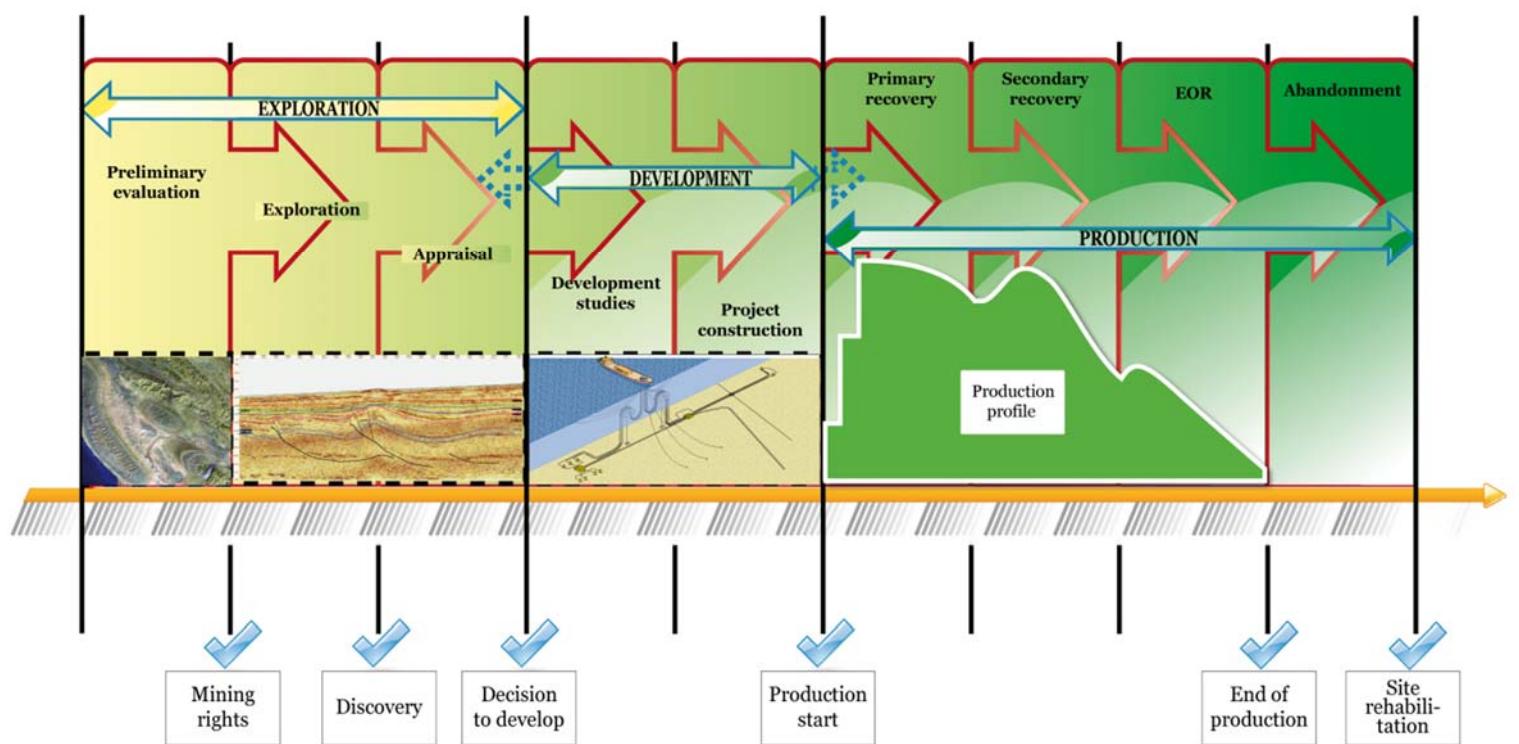
Condensate/Gas ratio:

$$\text{CGR} = 0.2 / 200 = 0.001 \text{ Sm}^3/\text{m}^3$$

$$\text{GOR} = 1 / \text{CGR} = 1 000 \text{ Sm}^3/\text{m}^3$$

E & P workflow

Main phases of a field's life



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Conclusion

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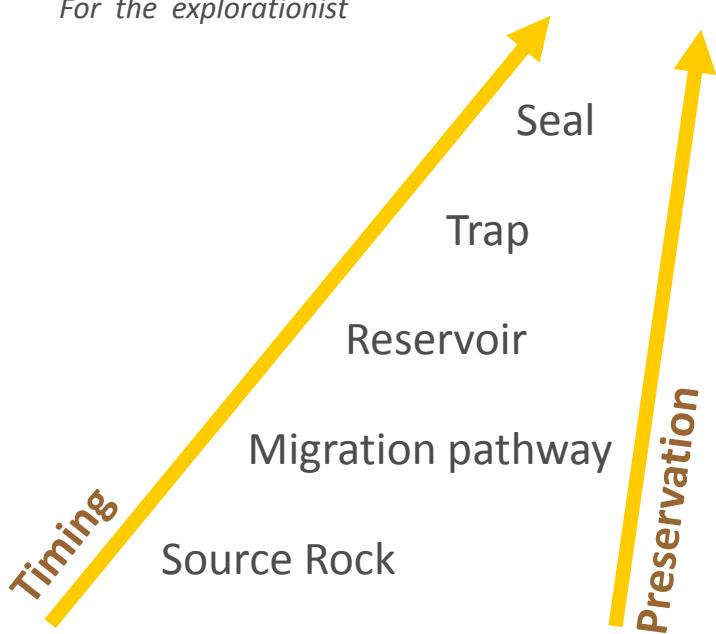
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Data consistency vs probability of success

Is there oil and where?

That is the question!

For the explorationist



...You win!

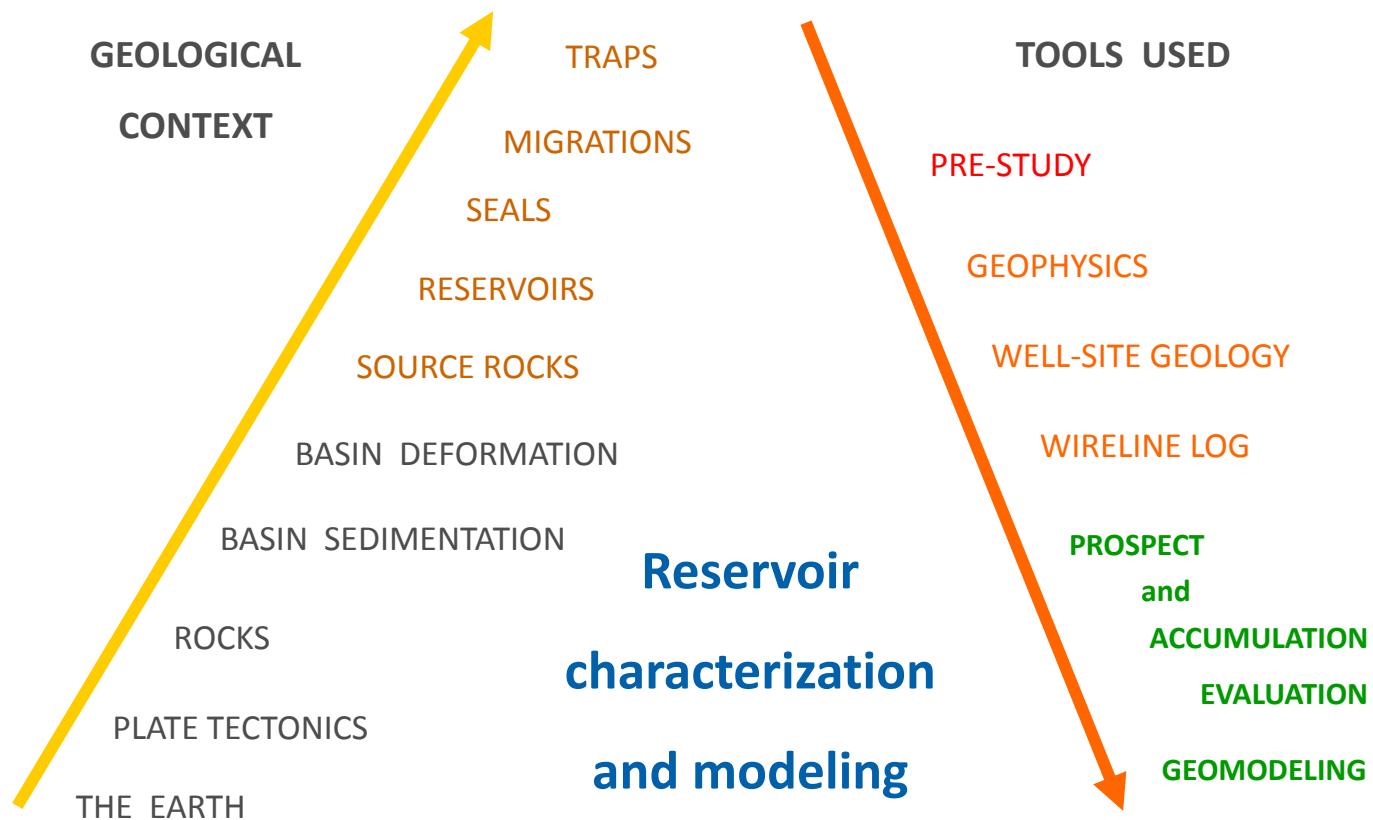
If
ALL
conditions
are
favorable

Integrity/leaks
Closure/fractures
Porosity/perm./size
Migration/dysmigration
Maturity

If
only
ONE
answer

is
“NO”

...You loose!



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Data, tools & uncertainties

	Uncertainties		
Exploration		Plate tectonics	Photos
Shape	GRV	Passive margins, Foreland basins, Intracratonic margins	Field
<i>Static</i>		Tectonics	Seismic
Delineation	N-to-G	Extension, Compression Salt, Mud	Sedimentology
Reservoir characterization	Porosity	Rocks	Stratigraphy
		Clastic, carbonates, salt	Mudlogging
		Diagenesis	
<i>Dynamic</i>	S_o	Environment	Sampling
Production		Alluvial fan, braided rivers, meanders, littoral, dunes, platform, reef, deep sea fan, turbidites	Logs
Fluids	$1/B_o$		Well testing
	Heterogeneities		

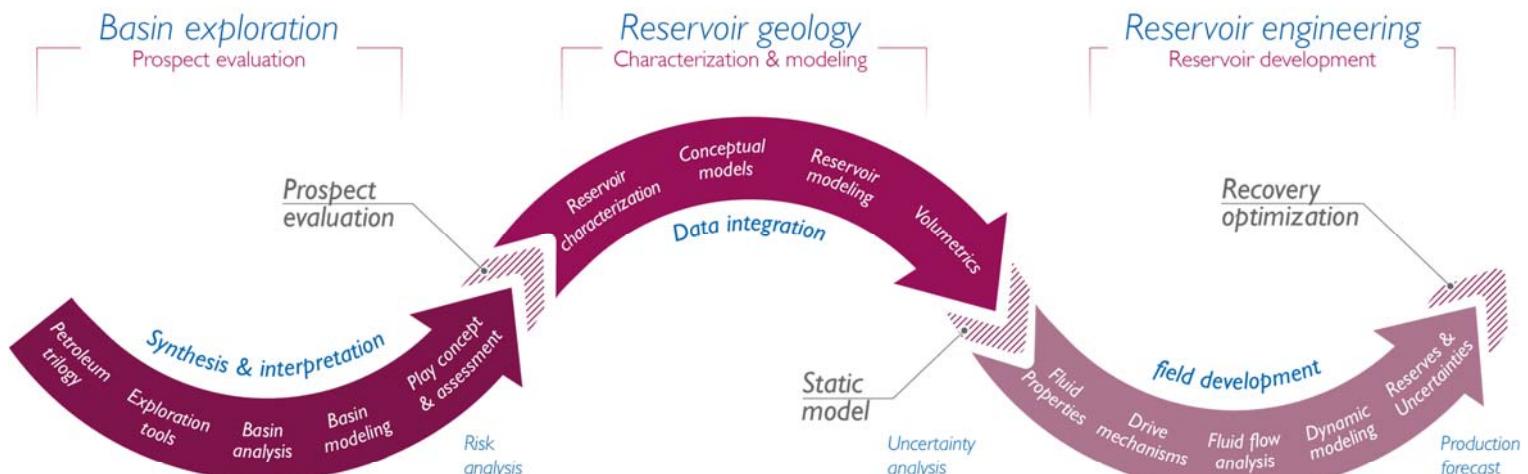
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Thank you for your attention!

E&P Geosciences integrated workflows



Integrated programs:

> PetEx

- 3D Seismic interpretation
- Structural modeling
- Sequence stratigraphy
- Well log analysis
- Well geophysics / Borehole seismic
- Geochemistry
- Petroleum systems

> RCM

- Core description
- Well logs, electro-facies
- Core analysis, petrophysics
- Rock typing, rock properties
- Seismic facies
- Geostatistics
- Heterogeneities
- Fractured reservoirs

> ResEng

- PVT, fluid studies
- SCAL, petrophysics
- Well test analysis
- Dynamic reservoir simulation
- Optimized recovery EOR / IOR
- Development project and uncertainties

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